

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

BY RECENT action of the Executive Committee the Forty-eighth Annual Meeting of the Association will be held at the Palmer House, Chicago, March 22 to 27, 1943, instead of at the Stevens Hotel. It is generally known that the Army has leased the Stevens Hotel which has housed the meetings of the Association for several years.

THE DYNAMICS OF NORTH CENTRAL LEADERSHIP ¹

The pages of the QUARTERLY mirror the trends of North Central activity. Reflected there, and in the *Proceedings* which antedated it, are all the major crises through which the nation has passed since the inception of the Association forty-seven years ago. Wars, "panics," and depressions have turned the thoughts of educators to our ram-parts both without and within. The forums of the Association have resounded with solemn debates of vital issues, and the enactments of the various Commissions have reflected serious attempts to fortify the schools to meet

these issues as the years have come and gone.

The present is no exception. Since Pearl Harbor there has been an intensification of what had grown progressively apparent before; namely, a re-examination of educational practices among affiliated schools, and a modification of the policies of the Association in harmony with the changing emphasis among its member institutions.

Examination of the 1942 issues of the QUARTERLY will reveal the extent of these movements. Roughly, they fall into three categories: actions of the Executive Committee, which is the coordinating body of the Association; actions of the three Commissions, and their subsidiary bodies; and papers read at the annual meetings of the Association. To these should be added the innovations in both theory and practice which have been worked out in member institutions, both secondary schools and colleges, on their own initiative. These have all too incompletely been reported through the regular channels of the Association.

Let us examine some of the actions and modifications referred to above. For instance, what is the attitude of the Association, expressed by the Executive Committee, toward the education speed-up required by the War? In January,

¹ *Editor's Note.* By coincidence this editorial closely approximates the one prepared by Mr. Rosenlof, general secretary of the Association, for the July issue and entitled "Retrospect and Prospect." It was decided not to kill the present treatment of the urgent problem of articulation and coordination of educational effort within the Association, since it specifically supplements Mr. Rosenlof's exposition of the same question.—H.C.K.

1942, an official communication went from this Committee to all member schools of the Association, which concluded with this significant paragraph:

The North Central Association in this critical period will not merely sanction its member schools making adjustments to meet local conditions which will aid in meeting the war conditions—it will encourage and aid them in so doing. The Executive Committee, therefore, directs that during this emergency period the Board of Review in the case of higher institutions and the Committee of Seven in the case of secondary schools counsel with school administrators in those cases where they may wish to make adjustments which may seem to be technically in variance with North Central Association regulations. The Association believes that the real effectiveness of such adjustments will depend on adherence to principles which hold as true in times of war as they do in times of peace.¹

The minutes of the Executive Committee reveal other actions consonant with the policy referred to above—a fact not to be wondered at in view of the personnel of the Committee. It is predominantly made up of executive officers of both schools and colleges, men who must see that their respective institutions play the role expected of them in a crisis.

The Commission on Colleges and Universities, among other things, has been systematically looking into current issues in accrediting higher educational institutions,² their finances,³ their purposes,⁴ and what they are doing about the preparation of teachers.⁵ All of these activities bear, directly or indirectly, upon educational practices in wartime.

For many years the Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education, now known as the Commission on Research

and Service, has been producing the well-known series of Unit Courses for Secondary Schools.¹ It recently completed a study of teacher certification,² and is now engaged with the problem of in-service training of teachers.³ Any one who has been following these activities knows how closely they are related to school work in the present crisis. This relation is especially clearly shown in those unit courses which have appeared in the past few months, and in others which are being contemplated. Elsewhere in this issue appears a list of recent publications of this Commission. Readers may judge the timeliness of such materials by scanning these titles.

The Commission on Secondary Schools is best known to the three thousand high schools which hold membership in the Association, because this is the Commission which annually examines the credentials of these schools. But this Commission does much more than that. For instance, it actively promoted the widely-acclaimed Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and Accrediting and continues to foster the use of the *Evaluative Criteria* which were developed by this Study. Not nearly so spectacular but of great significance nevertheless is the continuous attention which the Commission gives to the Policies, Regulations and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools. Time was when these "standards" were both authoritarian in character and inflexibly administered. But as objective evidence accumulated which tended to disprove some of these standards, they were qualified accordingly. In short, a most commendable modification of the relationship of the Commission to its constituent schools has developed almost

¹ The QUARTERLY, April, 1942, p. 338.

² January, 1942, pp. 313-31.

³ April, 1942, pp. 430-47.

⁴ January, 1942, pp. 292-312.

⁵ January, April, October, 1942, pp. 262-67; 396-408; 180-85.

¹ October, 1941; 1942, pp. 188-195; 199.

² January, 1942, pp. 268-70.

³ April, July, 1942, pp. 409-23; 19-27.

unnoticed, within the past ten years, whereby there is less regimentation and more encouragement of educational adventuring than heretofore. Evidence of this liberalization of policy is the ever-present willingness of the Commission to be guided by the results of referenda of important issues to member schools.¹

The addresses delivered at the general and departmental sessions of the Association also reflect the challenge to leadership which the times impose. Porter's "Understanding Japan's 'New Order for East Asia,'" ² Stark's "Education and Democracy," ³ Platt's "The Cooperative Approach to Inter-American Unity," ⁴ Rear Admiral Downes's "Naval Service and the College," ⁵ and Kazmayer's unforgettable "Citizenship in This Democracy Today!" ⁶ are in point. To them should be added Rosenlof's editorial, "Retrospect and Prospect" which appears in the preceding issue of the *QUARTERLY*.⁷

As the tentacles of necessity pull the schools farther and farther from their peace-time programs they face an unpredictable future. Already many conflicting voices are heard concerning their paramount obligation. What about education for self-preservation? The teaching of hate? Military tactics in the schools? Health and physical education? Education of a floating child population? Abolition of racial discrimination? International education? Post-war politics, economics, and reconstruction? Ultimate policing of the world? Add to these areas such activities as salvaging, rationing, promoting stamp and bond sales, organizing for community defense, all of which and

more the schools have been admirably discharging, and the need for coordinated leadership and a clearing-house of ideas and practices becomes mandatory. How can the resources of all types of member institutions be mobilized for the all-out effort that, at last, we know we face? How progressively liberal is the Association prepared to be with the war necessities of its constituents? How dynamic in its leadership? Answers to these questions will measure the effectiveness of the North Central Association in this awful crisis.

PROFESSIONAL ADVENTURES IN NORTH CENTRAL CIRCLES: AN APPEAL

Now that North Central schools and colleges, 3,300 strong, are getting under way in another eventful year, it is most desirable that news of their significant doings be exchanged for the benefit of all. The columns of the *QUARTERLY* are available for this purpose. In the three preceding issues innovations undertaken by twenty schools in six states were described, and professional news of a general nature was published from four other states. This means that one-half of the states which make up North Central territory have not been heard from, and 2,981 high schools! No colleges have spoken. Clearly, if schools and colleges are inventing new ways of doing things at this most critical time, they are morally obligated to pass them along. As much must be said for the state officers of the Association. Therefore, the *QUARTERLY* will be gratified to receive news from the field, either through the state chairmen, through the secretaries of the various Commissions, or direct from the institutions themselves. Will the respective chairmen of the State Committees respond, as some have done, by bringing this request to the attention of their constituent schools?

¹ October, 1941, pp. 208-11.

² January, 1942, pp. 231-35.

³ April, 1942, pp. 375-79.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 380-84.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 385-88.

⁶ October, 1942, pp. 155-67.

⁷ July, 1942, pp. 1-3.

COLLEGE VIEW HIGH SCHOOL OMITTED
FROM THE PUBLISHED LIST OF
ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Through an unfortunate error College View High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, was omitted from the list of approved secondary schools which was published in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*. This school, of which Torval Johnson is principal, is a six-year institution, is staffed by eleven teachers and has an enrollment of 116 pupils. It has been accredited continuously since 1922. It is suggested that each reader of the *QUARTERLY* insert the name of this school on page 121 of the July, 1942, number.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND THE
POST-WAR SCENE

The day of state or regional provincialism in public education is certainly past. Although for more than a decade that fact has been growing more and more apparent, it took the war to bring it to sharp focus. Therefore, the National Institute on Education and the War, called in Washington August 28 to 31 by the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission has established an important precedent. More than five hundred educators drawn from all sections of the country attended. At least three-fourths of all state superintendents and secretaries of state education associations were there. All the regional accrediting associations were represented, especially in the field of higher education. The conference membership was rounded out with invitations to other categories of educational workers. Subsequent meetings will carry the deliberations of the National Institute to teachers throughout the nation.

The logic of such procedure, originating with the U. S. Office of Education,

is clear. Unity through great diversity in things educational is a proven fallacy without some representative agency of interpretation. This the American schools have lacked. Shall the benefits of national planning under impersonal leadership be lost to the post-war scene?

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CITIZENSHIP IN THIS DEMOCRACY TODAY! ¹

ROBERT KAZMAYER

WE CANNOT adequately understand the meaning of citizenship in a democracy today except as we understand the world in which our democracy finds itself today.

In this connection there is a danger in following the headlines too closely, for sometimes we become so immersed in the details of military campaigns, naval strategy, and diplomatic victories that we lose sight of the larger picture. We fail to see the broader implications of the greater conflict of which these day by day, hour by hour, news releases are but a small part.

For purposes of understanding this subject, "Citizenship in This Democracy Today," let us back away from the headlines long enough to see clearly the first great characteristic of our age—*change*.

Our remote ancestors, somewhere in the hoary mists of antiquity, lived in the Stone Age; and others less remote lived in what has been called the Iron Age. Still less remote were those of the Age of Steel. Our fathers lived in what has been called the Age of Electricity, and that age was followed by what we felt was our own era, the Machine Age. But while we are still almost completely dependent on the products of that age, the age itself has given way to another. The Age of Change is upon us.

We are living in the most swiftly changing period the world has yet known. I recognize that that statement

has all the earmarks of the platitude that it is. Yet think with me upon it for a moment.

When the World's Fair opened in New York City, they had there the mummified remains of a man who lived two thousand years before Christ. Five hundred yards down the promenade stood a statue of the Father of our Country, who lived a little over a century and a half ago. Think, if that man lying there in the mummy room had somehow managed to come alive in George Washington's day, he would very shortly have felt entirely at home; he would have found himself in a world very much like his own.

There were slaves to do the work in old King Tut's day. There were slaves still in George Washington's time. Space and time were barriers in that ancient day. No man could travel any faster than a beast of burden could carry him. No message could be sent any faster than a man could carry that message. Those things were still true in Washington's time. In ancient Egypt the rule of the many was in the hands of a very few. It was in Washington's time. Luxuries, as far as men knew them, were confined to a small, exclusive group. That was true in both cases. In both times education was for a limited number only.

Yet if that man came alive today he would find all of those things completely changed. Our slaves today are of steel and iron, and they work with the speed and power of sometimes far distant mines and waterfalls. They told me in the Westinghouse laboratories in Pitts-

¹ Delivered at the first general session of the 1942 meeting of the Association. Those who were fortunate enough to hear Mr. Kazmeyer will remember his stirring appeal. His address is published in full.

burgh the other night that there is in mechanical horse power in the United States today the equivalent of one hundred eighty Roman slaves for every citizen of the United States.

Time and space, comparatively speaking, mean little to us. We throw our voice around the world in the time that it takes to utter one syllable. I left New York City the other night at 6:19 and crossed the continent, arriving at Las Vegas, Nevada, for a convention the following noon hour.

Throughout our country today education, beyond the wildest dreams of either of those men, is free and open to all. The rule of the many is in the hands of all. Things which they would have regarded as luxuries, we accept as common necessities of life and take for granted.

This is the point which I wish to make, and I don't want to seem to belabor it: *The world has changed more in the last century and a half than it did in the preceding thirty-nine centuries.*

Further, if you were to break down that last century and a half for the period of the greatest change within that period, you would inevitably have to take the last twenty-five years. It has been during that time that most of those things which have changed the normal tenor of our lives have become the common property of all our society.

Countless discoveries and inventions have been turned into practical usage and brought into play, changing our lives. The radio, the common use of the telephone, the moving picture, scores of daily uses of electricity, the airplane, the automobile—to name those which come first to mind. Daily life in our western world has revolutionized itself in the past quarter of a century.

More, when you try to break down

the last quarter of a century, shortly you discover—and this is not easy to present or substantiate for there is no clear line of demarcation, but the great bulk of evidence supports this point of view—that the greater percentage of the changes occurring at the beginning of that quarter of a century period were in the realm of things scientific and mechanical. Our way of living was changed because we had easier, swifter, more efficient ways of doing things. Increasingly, however, as we come to the latter part of that period we find changes taking place in an altogether different realm, no longer in the field of things material only. Deeper changes were taking place in men's ways of living, resulting from basic changes in their ideologies and in their basic motivations.

Here, I believe, is the most significant change in this Age of Change: Over vast areas of our earth great groups of our human family have broken camp and started out for a new tenting ground. *Whole nations have attempted to build for themselves a new way of life.*

The Russians called it Communism; the Italians called it Fascism; the Germans, National Socialism; the Spaniards, Fascism. The Japanese have accepted the new order of industrialized feudalism and have never felt the need of dignifying it with a new name or a new philosophy; western sociologists have, however, called it a nationalistic theocracy. In every case it is, for want of a better term, known as *totalitarianism*.

Regardless, however, of what name we give it, the fact remains that increasingly during these last twenty-five years, over all our world, deep, vital changes have taken place. Oswald Spengler, writing from 1911-1914, probably first discerned their approach. He

called it, *Der Untergang des Abendlandes*, the Decline of Western Civilization. Vilfredo Prato, the Italian philosopher-sociologist, had another name for it. Ortego y Gasset, the Spaniard, analyzed it as the Revolt of the Masses. Petrim Sorokin, the Russian, now teaching at Harvard and probably the world's leading sociologist, says we are witnessing today the end of a six-hundred-year era of Sensate Culture. Herman Rauschning calls it the Revolution of Nihilism.

For twenty-five years now, and increasingly as we came to the latter years, a vague disquietude has been growing in the minds of thinking men. Teachers, preachers, poets, and philosophers—those whose business it is to man the lookouts of civilization—have sent up the storm signals, red rockets of warning, blazing blue tracer bullets of white hot criticism, illumining the terrain of our complacent social thinking. But we were, the great body of us, unmindful of all this. We preferred to continue to go our soft and easy way.

Now we are awakening. Groggy from oversleep, punch drunk from the devastating blows of the "new order," we're trying to get our bearings and to defend ourselves at the same time. It is not easy. The whole gigantic conflict has been referred to a decision of arms—war. That war already encompasses three-fourths of our earth. Moving in their own element, physical combat, our enemies are daring as well as strong. They have attacked not only our outposts, they have sunk our ships along our shores. They are preparing to bomb our cities. American boys are dying today. American men, women, and children on the far posts of the earth are suffering.

The first three months of the war are past and in our groggy state *we're not*,

all of us, *yet awake to the fact that we're suffering one defeat after another, we're fighting now with our backs to the wall, fighting for our lives—fighting to save the heritage of the long struggle of the ages, for ourselves and our posterity.*

To understand why this is so we have to take into consideration some of the characteristics of the New Order, as seen in the Dictator-countries. It seems to me that the predominant characteristic of totalitarianism is a fierce intense *emotionalism*. I never know quite how to present this. For myself I never think of Hitler's Germany without thinking of one Sunday night nine years ago.

I spoke to a group of young people in a small Methodist church in Berlin. The meeting developed into a sort of free-for-all discussion and went on until almost midnight. Some of the young people decided they would walk back to my hotel with me. We went off down Unter den Linden in the night. We came to that street which runs down past the old Kaiser Hof. My friends wanted to go down that street. I did not inquire why. I followed along.

There were two black shirt, elite guards standing stiffly at attention before the doors of the Kaiser Hof. Seeing those guards my friends said, "He is in!"

We looked at a window, a high French window on the third floor, and it was lighted. Seeing that lighted window my friends said, "He is still up and in his study. Let us wait."

So across the street from the Kaiser Hof we waited. Fifteen or twenty minutes we waited there. Other young people coming along the street stopped and joined our group. There were twenty or twenty-five of us waiting there when suddenly the curtains of the window were slowly drawn apart.

Standing there in the lamplight, be-

hind the glass, the figure of *der Führer* himself! From our side of the street there went up a shout, and the Nazi salute, "*Heil!*" rang out through the night air.

The man behind the glass raised his hand briefly in an answering salute. He bowed his head, almost as one might receive a benediction. After a brief moment the curtains were drawn slowly together again.

I looked at my companions. "I don't understand," I said.

"Every fifteen or twenty minutes, if he is in and up, he comes to the window to greet us," they answered.

"Yes, but who is here to greet him?" I asked.

"There is always some one here to greet him. In the daytime, often many more; perhaps at noon, two hundred," they answered.

"But why?" I asked, "why do you come to greet him? And why does he come to the window to greet you?"

They replied with what for them was an entirely natural and perfectly sincere answer. They said, "*We come here to greet him because we love him, and he comes to the window because he loves us.*"

You will remember that these were young people, more impressionable than their elders. It would not have been the same with the whole adult population. More, it was nine years ago. It would not be the same today, even were Hitler able to be in Berlin.

He does not ride openly through the streets today as he used to. He has not come to the window at all for the past three years. But we must realize that in their answer lies a part of the key to Hitler's phenomenal rise to power: the emotional hold which he has over his people. It may not be there today—indeed, I doubt that it is—but it does

explain something of the way he came. It explains something, too, of the way of totalitarianism everywhere, the way of fierce, intense, mass emotionalism.

Where does that emotionalism come from? How do they create it? You can't point to any single thing and say, "That represents the source of it." Rather you must realize that they have mobilized all the techniques of Hollywood—techniques, for moulding public opinion and arousing the mind and hearts of men, which were unavailable twenty-five years ago—all are mobilized and coordinated to form a blitz attack on the sanity and logic of a population. They shoot something through every stratum in which the individual lives and moves and has his being. Outside the country, you cannot imagine it. Inside the country, you cannot escape it.

Some years ago I talked with a friend of mine, a young German who was working for the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. He had just spent a week at Nuremberg during the annual Party Convention. Hundreds of thousands of Brown Shirts were billeted in the hotels and houses of the town and in tents over the surrounding fields. Hitler in his great official tent was receiving guests, party officials, Gauleiters, reports, etc.—sort of holding court, from early in the morning until late at night. The trusted Rudolf Hess, by the way, was always at his side.

One day, mid-morning, a young German peasant girl was presented to him. She had a bouquet of flowers picked in the German fields. Speechless, she bowed before him, handed the flowers up to him. He took them, handed them to a brown-shirted attendant at his side, and said to her, "You are Fräulein Schultz, are you not?"

She acknowledged that she was.

Now from the thing that happened

next, I suspect you will get two reactions. First, you will say, "The man is an egotistical ass." That is, or was, true. Second, "He is completely motivated by his sense of the dramatic." That also is true—particularly when he is dealing with the German population.

But the reaction of the girl is the thing that is significant. Taking her hand to help her rise, he said simply and quietly, "It is an occasion, *Fräulein*, which you will never forget." The tears welled up in *Fräulein's* eyes as with bowed head she turned to stumble out. She had been privileged to spend thirty seconds in the presence of the greatest leader of the greatest people the world has ever known—that's the way she saw it, and for her it was a never to be forgotten moment.

But, you say, "You have not explained how that emotion comes."

Let me tell you of the first great Hitler Rally I ever attended after Hitler came to power. I shall never forget it. It was just after he had taken upon himself the powers of old President von Hindenburg. He was holding an election to determine whether or not it was right that he should. He wasn't asking the German people whether he should or not. He already had. He was just asking whether it was all right or not, and there was only one way to vote and that was *Ja*.

But before the election they were having a rally. For the purposes of the rally they had selected a valley outside the city of Hamburg. At the far end of the valley they had raised six great flagpoles, two on the right, two on the left, and two even higher than the others in the center. Between each set of flagpoles they stretched a net, invisible beyond a short distance, but on it a giant swastika standing out lurid against the sky. Before the center set

of poles there was a platform, and behind the platform a scaffolding rose into the air. Over the scaffolding, heavy black drapes gave the whole thing a massive, pyramided effect. At the top of it a fire burned to the ancient folk god of the German people, *Wotan!*

In niches built back in the great pyramid-shaped back drop, soldiers, singly or in groups of two or four, stood at attention, amber lights heavy upon them. At the front of the platform was a great battery of microphones to carry the sound down three quarters of a mile of packed valley. And the valley was packed. They called it *der Tag* of a hundred thousand. They had over a hundred thousand there. They had run excursion trains from all over Germany. You could get there for almost nothing.

The rally was called for the twilight hour. It opened with a man coming before the microphones to lead those people singing. Will you remember that the German people *like* to sing, they *can* sing, and they *will* sing? More, will you remember that though we seldom use it for that purpose here, there's power in song? There's power to create and arouse emotion. And now that great group packed in the valley is singing, singing the fierce, intense, emotion-arousing songs of the Nazis, singing songs of Germany's degradation, Germany's humiliation, Germany's defeat—and singing of Germany's rightful place in the world and of her coming glory.

As they sang you could feel and see something happening to that vast group of people in the valley. They were changing from a hundred thousand separate individuals into one psychological, emotional unit. And the emotional tension of that unit was going up by the second. Twenty minutes of that singing and that man backed away

from the microphones. Before the applause had time to break, their Minister of Propaganda was before them. They do not call it Propaganda, of course. They call it Education. The Japanese are more clever, I think. They call it Thought Control and let it go at that.

I could not understand what Goebbels was saying. But I could understand what was happening. Every time that little man brought his fist down on the rostrum the tension of that group went up. Fifteen minutes of Goebbels and when he reached the climax you could feel something in the air—almost as you feel static before a thunderstorm. And when he finished, it broke—wild, feverish, thunderous cheering welled out into the night and up unto the hills.

One minute of it . . . two minutes . . . then as suddenly as it began it dropped to silence for now, from around the valley, great columns of light shot into the now darkened sky, from anti-aircraft lights placed around the field. Those columns of light indicated to those people one thing: A plane which had been circling around in the sky almost unnoticed had landed now, and now *Hitler himself was on the field!*

In a matter of seconds the police cleared a wide aisle down the center of that great crowd, a space perhaps fifty feet across and extending from the back of the crowd through to the platform. With that space cleared, a great massed band began to play, not the fiery, intense stuff of the Nazis but rather one of those grand old marches coming down from the days of the Empire—deep, throbbing, mighty, over a score of great bass drums taking the beat. For those people, history lived again in that march. Von Hindenburg walked to it once; and before him Kaiser Wilhelm, before him the Iron Chancellor, stern old Bismarck; and before that

Frederick the Great . . . and through and above it all, like the measured thunder of Destiny . . . drums . . . drums . . . drums!

To the beat of these drums one lone man walks down that open space. He walks with sagging shoulders, head down, cap low over his forehead, the visor over his eyes—alone and weary, little Adolf Hitler, the Man of Destiny, carrying the weight of a nation on his shoulders, step by step, up onto the platform and into a place where no other should be allowed to stand. Timed to the split second, with the last beat of the drums the great klieg lights come on him and he stands alone in a great aura of amber light. Slowly he raises his hand for the salute of his people. And from a hundred thousand throats the answer comes back, "*Sieg Heil! Sieg Heil!*"

His hand comes down very quickly. There is no time for applause once the master himself is on the field. He grips the rostrum in front of him. Beneath his fingers are the switches which will change those lights upon him from amber to brilliant, blazing white, so that when he reaches the climax of that speech he shall stand transformed and transfigured before them.

Then he starts to talk. Hitler can do something to the German people talking to them in German. All the emotion-arousing tactics that have preceded him are like ping-pong to war compared to what follows now. Those old speeches of Hitler designed for home consumption, lasting often an hour and a half to two hours, follow almost always the same outline. His opening was always this: The German people have given to civilization all those great contributions which have brought it to the place where today it is.

Perhaps he would start in the field of

music. Composers—he names them, one after another, Johann Sebastian Bach, Ludwig van Beethoven, Johannes Brahms, Anton Bruckner, Franz Joseph Haydn, Wolfgang Mozart, Max Reger, Franz Schubert, Robert Schumann, Johann Strauss, and Richard Wagner. Or maybe he starts in the field of philosophy, Johann Fichte, Ernst Haeckel, Georg Hegel, Gottfried von Leibnitz, Johann Goethe, Friedrich Nietzsche, Arthur Schopenhauer—through all this, the German people, *das deutsche Volk*, echoes again and again like the drum beat in a Tschaikovsky symphony.

Gradually *das deutsche Volk* changes to *wir*, we, *we* have done this, *we* have accomplished that, *we* have carried civilization along the long, upward trail, until he reaches the climax, to cry, "There is no *we*; there is no *deutsche Volk*!"

"We have been betrayed. We have been torn asunder. *We* are no more." Here entered the Jew-baiting. "Who did it?" The Jews, the Communists, the liberals, all those who set up the *Weimar Republik* by which came to us chaos and decadence. The English, the French, the Americans, all those who pressed down upon us the *Versailles Diktat*, calculated to keep us forever a debtor nation. They did it.

The third part of the address was always *recreate*, rebuild Germany—and the end of that, one last long altar call, flung down the valley: "I summon now to my side every man and woman among you who is willing, not only willing but prepared to die, tonight, if necessary, at my word. I summon you now to dedicate yourselves to the holy cause of our ancient Fatherland."

And having rebuilt Germany, what? "We shall go out to the nations of the world and we will beg of them no more;

we'll humiliate ourselves before them no longer; we'll go out and by the power of our ancient sword, *we'll take that which is rightfully ours.*"

Hitler takes over two hours to do what I have tried to tell you about in these last five minutes. But realize, if you take that stuff and shoot it, scientifically and systematically, into the blood stream of the national life of a people every six weeks, the emotional temperature of that people goes up. And the great political rally is but one of a score of techniques, all of which are used day and night to create the emotionalism upon which totalitarianism feeds.

But there is another side of this emotionalism, a grimmer, darker side. Some ten years ago I made the long trip from Frankfort on the Main to Paris riding in the third class compartment of a continental train. Sitting across from me was a German girl going to Paris for her vacation. We had some conversation during the long night ride. Two or three days later we discovered we were staying at the same hotel in Paris, the Hotel Moderne. We ate together a number of times, walked the banks of the Seine one moonlit night. In the years since then I have corresponded with her—in a casual sort of way. I've corresponded with a lot of young people here and there over the earth.

You do not ask your friends pertinent questions in dictator countries—if you do, a curtain comes down between you. They cannot answer and they are suspicious of you for asking. I never asked Hilda what was wrong with her family background. Always, however, I have known something was wrong, for as the Nazis gained in Germany she was more and more out of the country.

Three years ago I met her in Italy,

in Milan. She said, "I have not heard from my father for a long time. This is my father's name and this is his work-book number. When you get to Stuttgart, you will inquire for my father, and you send me word how he is, yes?"

I said yes, that I would do it. When I arrived in Stuttgart I inquired of the *Polizei*. A kindly old gentleman told me to go to another office. There was a young man there, clean cut and trim in his uniform, and his office was most modern and most efficient. Seeing the name and the number he had only to turn to his filing cabinet, pull out a narrow drawer, to run rapidly over a list of cards, to pick up his French phone and say in German: "Bring me coffin, Number 38291, ja!"

Now I recognize that story will not mean much to you. It is not a story of blood and gore; and even if it were, you have heard many stories. And I would not have you think the experience meant more to me than it actually did. It meant about as much to me as it would if somehow today I might become acquainted with your son or daughter and a few months from today, he or she might say to me concerning you: "I have not heard from my father. Will you inquire for him?"

And it would be given to me to write your daughter or son saying, "I have inquired for your father and they have given me a pasteboard box, small, like a shoebox, black, sealed, and filled with ashes. It contains all that remains of your father. Information on the outside says that he died at Dachau. Whether it was disease, suicide, or accident I do not know. I can pay a small fee, carry the box across the border and mail it to you. What do you wish me to do?"

There is the other side of the emotional picture—*fear*. You will be in

Germany a long time and you will not see the Gestapo. You will have many friends and you will not hear the Gestapo spoken of. But always you will know they are there. They call generally between two and four in the morning when there are few to see and none to talk. If some one in your family is taken away you may go to the police and inquire. But if the police say, "We do not know," you have no recourse beyond that—except to go your way alone and in silence.

On one side there is that fierce, intense, mass emotionalism. But if that emotion doesn't carry you along there is always *fear* to hold you in line. But *emotionalism, positive or negative, does not account for the fierce striking power of the nations pitted against us today*. There are other factors involved and these other factors are more important to our understanding of the responsibilities of citizenship in our democracy today than is the emotionalism. *The emotionalism explains the motivations by which these other factors are used, but it is the other factors which constitute strength*.

Briefly, let me try to present them.

First: Totalitarianism has brought back into the world something which our fathers well knew and valued highly. *Totalitarianism has rediscovered the meaning and value of work!*

I am often asked why and how France fell. It seems incredible, one of the first-rate powers of the modern world, and she disappeared forever from the face of the earth as a first-rate nation in a matter of weeks. Why? How?

Many books have already been written purporting to answer those questions. Many of those books I have read. And in most cases I believe their authors to be entirely sincere and well intentioned. Their fault lies in that

they present merely a segment of truth. And the point which I am making isn't the whole story. It, also, is only a part of the picture. But it is an important part. Perhaps I can illustrate it best with a personal experience.

A young man who had twice been my host in hurried trips across Germany, became, a year before Hitler came to power, a Nazi. When I had left him a year earlier he had been an ardent citizen of the Weimar Democracy, proud of the fact that Germany was democratic and that she was taking her place in the family of democratic nations attempting to build a free world. Meeting him again, I said:

"Heinrich, I do not understand. I know how you felt a year ago, what your hopes and plans and dreams were, the kind of world you wanted to build. But that was the very opposite of what you're doing now. Why have you changed? Why have you become a Nazi?"

And he answered me: "I became a Nazi because for a half-hour I talked with Adolf Hitler."

"And what did Adolf Hitler say?" I asked. I tell you this story because I think it is significant. There were thousands, even millions of young men, all over Germany, who could have told me what Heinrich did.

By the way, the way in which my friend met Adolf Hitler is not significant but it might interest you. My friend is a good photographer. He was sent to this country by General Motors of Europe to take pictures in New York, Chicago, and other large industrial cities of North America—pictures which were to be taken back and used as educational shorts in the schools and theaters of Germany. He told me the story:

"After the film had been cut and

titled I sat alone late one night in a Berlin theater watching a preview of my picture thrown on the screen. A group of men came in and sat down behind me. I did not pay any attention to them. But when my picture was over the house lights did not come on. Rather another picture came on, a picture of a funny little man whom I had never seen before. He seemed to have long black hair and a small moustache. He stood up on a platform haranguing a crowd. He held his right arm up stiffly while a group of boys marched past in front of him. He got into an airplane and disappeared away in the blue. When that picture was over the house lights came on; and the group of men behind me, they were happy. They congratulated each other, shook each other's hands. I turn around and in the center of the group is the little man I had seen on the screen. He is very happy, too. He is so happy he shake everybody's hand," said my friend. "He even shake my hand." Adolf Hitler had seen himself on the screen for the first time in his life.

"He was so happy, he invite me to go down the street with them and to eat with them that night. And I go. He talked to me. This is what he said:

"'We in Germany are where we are because our enemies were more powerful than we. We must be strong, too. And if we are going to be strong we must produce. And if we are going to produce we must *work*."

"'The Days of Destiny are fast rolling toward us now. In France they are working forty hours a week. They have theories, ideas, agitations. They are going to work thirty-six hours a week. That is good.

"'But we in Germany are doing the same thing. We must do just the opposite. While in France, they work

forty hours a week, we in Germany must work sixty. When they begin to work thirty-six, if ever they do, we will work seventy-two. While they grow smug, and soft, and self-satisfied in the democracies of the world, we in Germany must grow hard, and grim, and tough. While they ask for finer foods to eat and better clothes to wear, we must eat more common fare, wear plainer clothes; while they ask more luxuries for themselves, we must take in our belts.'

"And that," said my friend, "made sense to me. That is why I am a Nazi."

Gentlemen, you will bear in mind that I told you I did not pretend to know all the factors that entered into the Fall of France. But this I do know: Hitler came to power in Germany. For six years while the machines in the factories of France were going eight hours a day, the machines in the factories of Germany were going twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. On one side of the Rhine people were continuing to go their soft and easy way. On the other side of the Rhine 66,000,000 people were growing hard and grim and tough. When those two nations met, the result is history.

Somewhere in here is something which we in America must learn. We have here in the United States material resources beyond those of any other country in the world. With only 6 percent of the earth's land area and only 7 percent of the earth's population, we have 60 percent of the world's petroleum, 48 percent of its copper, 43 percent of its iron, 47 percent of its steel, 58 percent of its corn, 56 percent of its cotton, 33 percent of its coal—but time forbids my carrying it further. Sufficient to say, ours are resources that literally stagger the imagination. But this we must see, our material resources,

our great industrial plants, our vast farm lands, these will avail us nothing in this great world struggle except *we* know again the meaning and value of *work*.

Democracy today is fighting for its life. And plans, budgets, blue-prints, important as they are, won't win this fight. Even our soldiers, regardless of their bravery, can't win it. We're going to win only when and as we meet the Axis nations, not only man for man, but gun for gun, tank for tank, plane for plane, and ship for ship. To try to do it with less is only to slaughter our young men. But to have these things means *we're going to have to match the totalitarian nations, work for work, labor-hour for labor-hour, efficiency for efficiency, and production for production*. To try to do it in any easier way is to dangerously fool ourselves. Battles fought on the far-flung outposts of the world tomorrow are being decided now in the homes and factories of the United States.

Now I can hear some one saying, "That is good. That ought to be told to the working men of America, to the members of the C. I. O., the A. F. of L., and the W. P. A." If you're saying that, you're missing my point. We're *all* going to work harder, more efficiently, and with better results. For every one of us, regardless of our position, it means that we're going to wake up and toughen up. It means that in the days that lie ahead we're going to work, to work as we've never worked before, to work as no people on earth have ever worked. The challenge of citizenship in this democracy today is the challenge of work.

Second: Totalitarianism has brought into our modern world something which for a long time we have sadly needed, and that is *discipline*. It is not only

that in the totalitarian nations they work, but that they *work together*. And working together involves *discipline*, either self or social. Once with a young reporter from the *Frankfurter Zeitung* I inquired of Balder von Shirach as to what they were attempting to do with German youth. Herr von Shirach was at the time head of the *Hitler Jugend*. He had held a great youth rally at Frankfort on the Main—for eight hours of a sunny Sunday, khaki clad young men and women had marched past the reviewing stand. When it was over I said, "What do you hope to attain from this great outlay of time, effort, energy, and money?"

The answer: "The German people have had too many years of democracy. They have grown too soft. We must teach the citizens of the Third Reich, whether young or old, to accept responsibility. We must teach them to do the things they are supposed to do, in the places where they are, to do them without whining, without excuses, and without cutting the corners."

There again, there is a source of strength—and a lesson for us. Cordell Hull speaking informally to a group of newsmen in Washington some months ago said, "We forgot that democracy is an obligation as well as a privilege."

Many years ago Theodore Roosevelt told us, "There is no privilege without an equal and an accompanying responsibility. And no people who neglect the latter will long enjoy the former." Our nation was founded on the principle that there is no *right*, without an accompanying *duty*.

Can we see today that we are where we are because for a quarter of a century we have accepted the privileges of citizenship in this great nation and have neglected our responsibilities? During these years we have had a material pros-

perity unequaled by any other people, at any time, anywhere in history. And in our material ease our moral fibre grew soft and flabby. In our fools' paradise we even came to the place when we called the men who fought in 1917-18 "suckers." How tragically foolish we were! They did the thing they fought and died to do. They won that war. We lost it after they won it. We lost it because with the coming of the Armistice we threw up our hands and went on one grand, emotional binge that lasted for a generation.

And during that generation, the good men of the earth were merely good, while the bad men of the earth were eternally active, planning and working—working with a supreme faith in their evil plans.

Today, should we blame our leaders, our preachers, our philosophers, that this rampage of aggression was not stopped at its beginning, that these evil ways of life were not destroyed in their inception? Let us blame only ourselves. We were told, but we would not listen. The plain truth is we did not need to be told. The facts spoke for themselves. When Japan first invaded China, did we care? What did we do? Continued to sell oil and scrap iron. When Mussolini attacked the most defenseless people on earth, did we care? Not enough so they noticed it. So Hitler took Austria. And while thousands cheered, Chamberlain sold Czecho-Slovakia down the river.

Aroused, the free and freedom-loving, English-speaking peoples of the world alone could have stopped any one of those outrages—and with the exception of the last, probably done so without bloodshed. The blunt fact is: We didn't care. We didn't recognize the obligations of citizenship in a free country. We failed.

Now our obligations and responsibilities are in some measure of a different sort—for we have no choice at the moment in determining our nation's foreign policy. We're in a war. Now we have no choice. But we do have, still, obligations and responsibilities: the obligation and the responsibility of disciplining ourselves, of learning to make the sacrifices and endure the privations, *of doing the things we are supposed to do, in the place where we are, and doing them without whining, without excuses and without attempting to cut the corners. The challenge of citizenship in this democracy today, is the challenge of self discipline.*

Third: Totalitarianism has given to its people something which the democracies once had, *faith*. Pagan faiths they are to be sure, the faith of the young German in Hitler and in the *Herren Volk* and their right by virtue of their being a superior people to rule the world. The faith of the young Italian and the reincarnated glory of the Roman Empire. The faith of the Japanese in themselves, their "manifest destiny," and the Emperor of the Rising Sun. Those boys who cried, "*Heil!*" outside the Kaiser Hof, they have gone goose-stepping to their deaths. Boys I worked with in Russia, they too have died for their faith in a new Communist world. Boys whom I used to know in Japan wore little white bands on their arms—they were in the "suicide squads." They would walk the earth only until the first call into the first combat came. Then they were pledged to die in that first conflict or to kill themselves when they came out. That is the faith of Japanese youth in Hirohito and Japan.

Now I am not a clergyman nor in any way a professional religionist, but I have come to know this: In the hour

of crisis the most important thing in a man or nation is something which lies inside a man; it is that which he believes. This, we must see. Nothing which is good or fine, or great, ever comes into the world by chance. We have the great America which we have today because in days gone by our fathers did what they did. Bloody footprints in the snow at Valley Forge, graves at Gettysburg, the staccato rattle of a machine gun in the Argonne forest, may be only history, vague unreal stuff, to us now, but it was mighty real to those who lived then. Life was just as dear and peace as sweet to them as it is to us. They did what they did in those hours of crisis because they believed what they believed. *We have grown great because of our fathers' faith in our fathers' God.* And I use those words in an all-inclusive sense. It makes little difference now that a man is Catholic, Protestant, Jew, or Gentile. They are all a part of our nation's history, and they have all had a part in bringing us to the place where we are.

More, let us be perfectly clear on this, we shall never again be able to afford to tolerate for a single minute any man who casts aspersions at any other man because of his race, creed, or color. No, it does not matter to me what particular church you go to, or what particular theology you believe in. But it does matter to me that you know there are some things a man can believe in, some things a man *must* believe—that there are some things greater than a man's self, things for which a man may sacrifice—and sacrifice gladly all that he has—even life itself.

A long time ago Victor Hugo said: "No army in the world is more powerful than an idea whose time has come." Max Lerner brought out a book some

two years ago with this title, *Ideas Are Weapons, Too*. There, probably, you have it. A man can't fight a faith, even an evil faith, without some faith of his own.

The challenge of citizenship in this democracy today is a challenge of *faith*—faith in America, faith in the American way of life—*our fathers' faith in our fathers' God*.

Gentlemen, no man knows today what the future holds. Certainly the skies will be darker before they are brighter. The end is not in sight. There may be long months, even long years ahead. And anyway, there is no great need for arm-chair strategists. Ours only to realize that the work of the world is

never done, that each generation must pay its instalment on the cost of a better world, that great ideas, great institutions, and great nations exist only so long as they're loved and served.

Ours not to ask the emotionalism of Germany, or of Italy, or Japan—ours to recognize the sources of our nation's greatness and to bring back into our lives and into our society those factors which have made us strong and by which our strength will increase. Ours to resolve, each one for himself, that this old world under God shall have a new birth in freedom and that the idea and the ideal of government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall never perish from the earth!

EDUCATION FACES WAR AND PEACE¹

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SINCE this is my first appearance as a speaker before this Association, I accepted this invitation to address you with the greatest reluctance, though feeling honored far above my deserts. In addition, I am overcome with the futility of trying to determine specific educational policies and practices at this time of crisis.

A few thoughts, however, may be outlined. Today I note among our fraternity and among the citizenry a frenzied seeking after slogans to build confidence—after security in an age of war. As a result the word “morale” is being bandied from mouth to mouth. I do not believe that we can thus gain the confidence of the people.

Moral conviction can be built only from within each citizen. It must be arrived at through the recognition of current grim facts and through the knowledge that we are fighting desperately for all that we hold dear. The fight is for all that the word “university” traditionally implies. We must look forward, in my opinion, to a long struggle. But the ideas implied in the word “university,” coupled with the deep roots of the word “tradition,” will ultimately win. Another requisite in achieving this victory is flexibility—not only from the point of view of physical aspects—for this is war—but in the mental attitude toward war and what it involves. I believe it is time to clear away the cobwebs of wishful thinking.

The words of Socrates in the “Apol-

ogy”² are apt: “A man who is good for anything ought not to calculate the chance of living or dying: he ought only to consider whether in doing anything he is doing right or wrong—acting the part of a good man or of a bad.”

Lincoln made up his mind as to what was right after long soul searching, and neither defeat, treachery nor incompetence could stay him from winning a war or from preaching a just and clement peace. We, and all other citizens, should make up our minds as to what world conditions will permit our children to live nobly—then achieve these conditions. This takes thought and self-inquiry. Both are hard. Both are imperative now.

I suggest, therefore, that this war will be won and a reign of law backed by police power will be secured on earth, not by any particular academic method or procedure, not by a multiplicity of new courses often only remotely bearing on the issue at stake, but by what each of us discovers within himself. Why we are fighting and why we will keep on fighting until the opportunity for a just peace shall be at hand are the problems to be resolved by each citizen.

There is no security today. There are no fixed formulae or patterns of procedure in this emergency, for all is in a state of flux, as a peace-loving people gird themselves for a war they did not desire, but which they are determined to win.

Many will be the changes, radical

¹ An address delivered before the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education at Chicago, March 25, 1942.

² Benjamin Jowett, *The Dialogues of Plato*, Vol. II, p. 121. Cambridge: Oxford University Press, 1892.

and violent, before we hit our stride. Our security, if any, must reside in a citizenry, resilient and flexible as to ways and means, dedicated to all possible sacrifices, and fiercely determined that the preservation of their way of life is right and is important to the future welfare of the world.

It is not only because this emergency makes educational procedures uncertain, but also because I believe that, in a country as large as this, it is a mistake to lay down rigid patterns where conditions vary from region to region, that I question rigid adherence to academic rote or makeshift "adjustment" to the demands of war.

I do not suggest that special courses and curricula are not beneficial and necessary. At this time, however, it is the province of the army, of the navy, of the marine corps, of the air force, of the multitude of governmental agencies necessary to organize a peace loving people for war, and of industry, to indicate their needs, not that of the educator in his "ivory tower." They, not we, know the demands of modern, total warfare. We must be flexible, ready, and prompt to supply them.

I should like to call attention to the fact that, ironically enough, it has taken a world cataclysm and the pleading of distraught officers of our armed forces to restore to their former dignity subjects which once were almost taken for granted in education. I refer, of course, to—dare I use the words—"intellectually disciplinary" subjects. Well taught, such subjects as the languages, mathematics, physics, chemistry, science in general, and the history of human experience are exciting.

Today languages are needed because the war embraces at least the major languages of the modern world; mathematics, physics, and chemistry, because mechanization, both in production and

in destruction, requires a knowledge of at least the rudiments of these subjects. History—and I use this neglected word in its broadest sense embracing economics with its ramifications and political theory with its connotations—is essential because, perhaps naively, it is felt that soldiers should know how the liberties and responsibilities for which they are fighting were achieved. These liberties, with their attendant responsibilities, have been made possible through an age-old struggle and through a steady growth of belief in the dignity of the individual.

Education today has a real problem which it is gallantly, though sometimes gropingly, trying to face—the course to follow and the goal to achieve. This problem is rather nebulous. I should like to read to you a passage from John Steinbeck's book, *The Moon Is Down*¹ which suggests its dimensions. Nazi troops have come to a little village somewhere in the north and have taken it over. The Nazi colonel is now having a conference with the mayor. The colonel speaks:

"I told you I'm very tired, sir. I must have some sleep. Please cooperate with us for the good of all." When Mayor Orden made no reply, "For the good of all," Lanser repeated. "Will you?"

Orden said, "This is a little town. I don't know. The people are confused and so am I."

"But will you try to cooperate?"

Orden shook his head. "I don't know. When the town makes up its mind what it wants to do, I'll probably do that."

"But you are the authority."

Orden smiled. "You won't believe this, but it is true: authority is in the town. I don't know how or why, but it is so. This means we cannot act as quickly as you can but when a direction is set, we all act together. I am confused. I don't know yet."

Our problem is to aid the thought which will determine the charting of that "direction." This means searching

¹ New York: The Viking Press, 1942; from pp. 40-41.

—soul searching—as to what we want, and each individual must do it for himself, if our way of life is to succeed permanently. In the changing world of today and tomorrow, democracy, developed by slavish following of educational blue-prints, is a house built on sand.

Only through this search can we attain something enduring and resilient; something born of the eternal spirit of man. Instead we are now—we educators—groping furiously, and some have dared to suggest, futilely. Should we not concentrate on nurturing in our students a feeling for the dignity of the individual and of the community—a feeling arrived at through long struggle and deep-rooted tradition, and heretofore known only to those self-respecting and responsible individuals dedicated, often subconsciously, to the philosophy that man is perfectible?

The vast bulk of teaching deals with children and adolescents, with young men and young women. To impart a feeling for this dignity of the individual and of the community requires great teachers; and teaching actually is an art—not a science. Therefore, the teacher is the crux of the solution of these problems. The teacher must have a wide reading knowledge with a deep and vivid interest in his subject; he must study great achievements, the development of man, of his creative powers, and of his search for understanding of the Divine. Only with such a foundation can he awaken the hunger of intellectual curiosity. Only then can he hope to assist in a sound and gradual maturing of youth. Good teaching, therefore, is a prime requisite of war and of peace.

Let us take up a few of the other problems which are facing teachers in general. War today demands more highly skilled and emotionally balanced people; men and women who think faster and endure greater nervous strain; men

and women who are inexorably obliged, in order to handle the instruments of modern warfare, to know more; and finally, men and women, who to produce and to distribute under great pressure, must be better men and women, than ever before.

Let us think for a moment of some of the essentials which we teachers must help our people to develop. We all must have in the years that lie ahead tremendous powers and capacities for endurance. The complexities of all-out modern warfare demand that men and women in the factories, in the fields, in the hospitals, and on our world-wide war front must work to the limit of human endurance.

A second requisite in war and in peace is mental and intellectual ability. Today scientists in the laboratories of the United Nations are carrying on a secret, undercover competition against scientists of enemy countries, each racing against time. Today the effort to expand the horizons of human knowledge must be dedicated to destruction. We must once again eat of the bitter apple of knowledge canalized for destructive immediate aims, until the time peace shall see a return of science to the service of mankind.

Effective leadership, the third requisite in war and in peace, calls for imagination and vision; for the quality of inspiring confidence when all cause for confidence may seem illusory. Army, navy, air force, and government are crying for leaders of men, for leaders equipped with enough technical knowledge and common sense to mobilize for effective action in war and in peace, human beings with diverse technical skills and with varied capacities and potentialities.

Now it is necessary, in probing for human essentials, to enter upon a phase open to much academic discussion and

controversy. I refer to the desperate need for spiritual stamina, a fourth requisite. The Janizaries of Suleiman the Magnificent, Cromwell's Ironsides, Washington, Lincoln, the Russians, the men and women of "free" China, and finally MacArthur exemplify the power of the spirit, a word which in my mind needs no apology or explanation. No apology is due because educators should have sought for themselves the real meaning inherent in the words "spirit" and "spiritual;" no explanation because each individual now living should seek his own. The cultivation of the spirit is essential to the attainment of the free ways of life, because it nourishes also the roots of responsibility.

It is needless to point out that endurance, with its physical connotations; or mental and intellectual fibre, with its focus on the horizons of knowledge; or the spiritual aspirations of man deep-rooted in all human experience and reaching upward, continuing after the dissolution of our human bodies, are all inter-related. I should like to suggest that education must be cognizant of all these qualities and ardent in pursuing knowledge of them.

We should in our quiet moments of honest educational inquiry, turn our minds to the methods by which teachers are selected. We should also consider the practices which teachers adopt to protect themselves while struggling to reach the goal of security. Many, having achieved security and exhausted by being prematurely forced into mediocre publication, proceed to cease from intellectual growth—the very thing the system was designed to prevent. Often it is not the fault of those who cease from intellectual prying and peering and pursuit. It is the result of a system that demands successive evidences of so-called "original research" in order to get a position or a promotion.

I wonder if at this time it is not es-

sential that the teacher be restored to his dignity? But do not get me amiss. The need for research should never be questioned. Rather it should be further dignified and encouraged, and its dignity will be enhanced if it is rid of some of the practices I have mentioned as so-called research.

The evidence of its practical usefulness in war is seen today, as the government is draining our universities of their researchers. Even more vital over the long vista of centuries past and to come, is the desire and need—vital need—for man to seek new knowledge, new understanding. This, I feel, is so self-evident I need not mention it further, except to point out that the new knowledge of the man of research excites and stimulates the teacher of man. The University of today and of tomorrow is becoming, and will be, different. It must adjust during war. It should be preparing to meet intelligently through research the problems of reconstruction and of world peace.

May I at this point make a plea for sanity and for the middle road—an old and hard road. We must teach; we must research. Some individuals are good at both; some better at one than the other. A good teacher with no research, who keeps intellectually alive and abreast of his subject, has his place. A good researcher who cannot teach has his place. Is there not room for all? Why the educational strait-jacket? Are we not fighting to keep this country free and to maintain a premium on individuality?

Despite almost universal literacy, our citizenry needs still more knowledge, more sense of duty and of responsibility, and more acquaintance with what the dignity of a human being means. This last quality in particular it must have if it is to cope with the mechanical and organizational complexities of our modern civilization and if it is to preserve real freedom.

The universities today and during the war years, from now until peace, and afterwards, must become an integral part of a community, or of a region. They should try to foster and nourish all sound aesthetic, intellectual, and spiritual values in our citizens of all ages. They should meet needs of citizens, whom the age of literacy, of the radio, of the sound motion picture, and of the picture magazine may cause to seek new understanding. The university can no longer be an "ivory tower." It must become a significant part of the community and its influence must be felt in all constructive aspects of community life.

Although it is of increasing importance, this is only part of the duty of the university of today and of the future. A university must seek more assiduously to allow the development and expansion of the exceptionally able minds of our people. In our preoccupation with general education, this latter point has not received the attention it deserves. Exceptional intellectual ability must be stimulated by special attention.

I have pointed out that self examination is the basis of spiritual stamina, and that each must study why we are fighting, and why we are determined to win. This is fundamental for a nation of free citizens. It has been suggested that war is forcing us to return to an essential core of subjects—languages, mathematics, history, and the sciences—and that there is now no time for many of the frills of education.

I have urged a more intense study of our origins and of our struggles to arrive at the freedom we have taken for granted. Endurance, intellectual discipline, leadership, teaching, and research, are needed both in war and in peace. The war now to be won, and the inevitable peace, present difficult problems. We must examine ourselves to see what we are willing to sacrifice in the interests of world

order, under a reign of law backed by police power.

Our people today are interested in the peace of the future.

Americans want to cooperate with other nations after the war is over to establish world peace. Four out of five people in this national cross-section think that if the Axis is defeated, the United States should try to form some kind of a union to help keep peace and order in the world. A large majority agree that all the allies, including Russia, and the Central and South American countries should be included in such a union. A slight majority are of the opinion that Germany, Italy and Japan should also be included.

Furthermore, at this time, a majority of Americans are neither revengeful against the people living in the Axis countries nor do they favor a United States policy of aggrandizement.¹

Will this feeling endure once blood begins to flow freely? There is great peril of hatred ahead. To hate a wrong idea is sound. But to hate people who hold it merely makes peace impossible—and corrodes the heart of him who hates. In this connection I would like to quote some lines read recently. The first quotation starts with a line from Meister Eckhart who was born around 1270 and lived to about 1330 A. D. It begins "Wir begehen das Fest der ewigen Geburt." Then follow some lines two of which I venture to quote.

. . . Seekers of light, be bold—
and dare to love again . . .

The other quotation reads:

Light looked down and beheld Darkness,
"Thither will I go," said Light.
Peace looked down and beheld War,
"Thither will I go," said Peace.
Love looked down and beheld Hatred,
"Thither will I go," said Love.
So came Light, and shone;
So came Peace, and gave rest;
So came Love, and brought Life,
And the Word was made Flesh,
And dwelt among us.

Our hope of peace lies in keeping this spirit as we go about winning this war.

¹ National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, "Report of Nation-wide Survey," March, 1942, p. 3.

EDUCATION AT WAR ¹

ROBERT M. HUTCHINS
University of Chicago

THE colleges and universities of the United States are now instrumentalities of total war. Their knowledge of research and training gives them new opportunities to serve the country. But their great opportunity is neither in research nor training, significant as these activities are. The great opportunity to serve the country that is now before the colleges and universities of the United States is that of reorganizing the educational system.

The most important service we can perform is the elimination of waste. Whatever may have been the case in the good old days of free enterprise, in a military economy, waste comes close to treason. In the long list of points at which national resources have been wasted, the colleges and universities must be included. College life has become a popular synonym for elaborate loafing. Extracurriculum activities have been notorious for their flamboyant consumption of time, effort, and money. The curriculum, the country over, has been framed to attract students who ought not to be in college; it has been managed in such a way as to guarantee them a peaceful progress to their degrees. The courses were unrelated, overlapping, and generally inconsequential, and when every member of a faculty has had to have a Ph.D degree, and every member of a university faculty has had to do research, the volume of trivial research has become so great that many honest men have been revolted at

spending their lives in such pastimes and have taken to selling insurance instead. And all this has been conducted through an administrative organization chaotic and ineffective, in a plan of increasing luxuriance and gothicity, at an increasing cost per cubic foot.

Now what seems to be going on across the country to meet the challenge of the war, is a great rescheduling movement. In the effort to give their students as much chance as possible to get an education before they are called, the colleges and universities are eliminating waste periods and devoting the time saved to formal instruction. But what we ought to find out is not whether we can do the same things in less time, but whether all the things we have been doing are worth doing.

The tendency of some accelerated programs has been to squeeze out the things worth doing because they are superficially less attractive than the things not worth doing. The situation has been aggravated by the presumed necessity of adding to accelerated programs more waste, water, and frivolity in the guise of "war courses." One college, for example, has just introduced sewing and black-out driving.

The result of some accelerated programs will be that the student will be exposed to forty-eight weeks of poorer instruction than he has hitherto experienced in thirty-six. This slight temporal advantage will hardly counterbalance the intellectual damage done him and the educational, physical, and financial losses that he will suffer

¹ An address delivered before the Commission on Higher Education at Chicago, March 25, 1942.

through the elimination of his vacations.

Our notion seems to be that the only thing we have wasted in American education is the vacation periods. But even if we grant that vacations are wasteful, we must see that they are a trifling extravagance when compared with those monstrous and depressing wastes which result from the idiosyncrasies of our educational system.

As we all know, when Horace Mann went to Germany to find a school to imitate, he imitated the wrong one. He brought back as a foundation school for America, one that was terminal in its native land and that took eight years because it was terminal. The painful prolongation of adolescence in the United States must be attributed in part to Horace Mann's initial mistake. Students are delayed two years all along the line. And two years is about the difference in intellectual maturity between an American student, and an English, French, or German boy of the same age.

American educational organization was bad enough before the rise of the junior college. With that it became intolerable. Those who started the junior college movement had a clear idea of the place of the institution in the educational scheme. It was to be a part of the secondary school system. It was to be the American gymnasium. But it was not to be a two-year unit any more than a gymnasium, or the lycee, or the English public school was a two-year unit.

Mr. Harper arranged to have the Morgan Park Academy, then part of the University of Chicago, do the full work of the freshman and sophomore years. But he did not think of those years as separate from the work of the Academy. He thought of them as

absorbed into the Academy, as part of the secondary school system. President Folwell, at the University of Minnesota, in his own words, "threw the usual work of freshmen and sophomores out of the proper university courses, and merged it into the old preparatory department."

The two-year organization of the junior college has added to the confusion of universities and colleges of liberal arts. It has destroyed such unity as these institutions had in their four-year programs leading to the bachelor's degree. At Chicago, for example, something more than 61 percent of the students who have received that degree in any year began their college work elsewhere. In other words, the junior college is tending to make a two-year unit out of the junior and senior years. If the junior colleges were to become four-year institutions they would have scope to develop an educational program. They would also give the present colleges of liberal arts and the universities a chance to work out something intelligible at the beginning of the junior year.

This I think they could do by organizing three-year programs of study to the master's degree. The mass of the population should end their formal education with the junior college. Only those interested in and qualified for advanced work, and all of those, should be encouraged to proceed beyond the end of the sophomore year. We should then begin true university work at the same point at which it used to be begun in Europe when there were universities there, and continue it, for those students who do not plan to become scholars, for the same period. We should be able to bring the methods and atmosphere of graduate work down to the beginning of the junior year.

Many departments in Chicago have

for a long time planned their programs for three years' study to the master's degree, and have indicated to the student that he could drop off at the end of two years if he wanted to, with a bachelor's degree. These departments have felt they have difficulty in doing a satisfactory job in two years, and urge they could approximate one in three.

Although liberal education can easily be completed by the end of the sophomore year, and although those who are without the interest and ability which independent intellectual work requires should not be allowed to proceed beyond this point, the junior and senior years of our colleges and universities have been crowded with mediocre students who go on to the bachelor's degree because that is the only recognizable reward that college offers. Their presence made it difficult to develop a worthwhile program for those who are qualified to go on, and their presence has also complicated the work for the master's degree which is generally a one-year addendum significant chiefly because a high school teaching job cannot be obtained without it.

All this would be drastically altered for the better if we were prepared to face the degree problem resolutely. We like to say degrees are not important, but even if they are not important to us who have so many that we are disillusioned about them, we know that they are important to our students. The American student is, in fact, the most degree-conscious in the world, except the Chinese.

We cannot make degrees less important simply by saying that they do not signify. They do signify. And since they do, we might try using them to clarify our educational organization instead of permitting them to add to its confusion. The bachelor's degree, like

the baccalaureat in France and in French Canada, could be awarded at the end of the junior college, which I should hope would be a four-year institution, and could indicate the completion of a liberal education.

The master's degree could be awarded after three years of advanced study and could indicate the completion of a university education, not such an education as requires scholarly ability or capacity in research, but an education calling for independent intellectual effort in a broad field of knowledge. Such an education, incidentally, ought to qualify the graduate for a teaching position in which research was not needed or demanded.

This scheme seems to me sensible and desirable at any time. Today it is imperative. We must look forward to the elimination of our non-scientific junior and senior male students next year. When women are conscripted, as they certainly will be, non-scientific junior and senior women will leave us too.

Before they are called into the service these men and women must have a chance to get the education which every citizen ought to have. It may be the last chance they will have to get it.

On these general principles the University of Chicago was reorganized ten years ago. The College and the Divisions were created. The University and its Laboratory Schools were organized on a 6-4-4 plan. The last two years of University High School was incorporated into the program of the College. An articulated course of study was developed at every stage.

At the College and Divisional levels four hundred courses were struck from the curriculum. On January 22 of this year the University took the next logical step: it discontinued the award of

the bachelor's degree at the end of the conventional senior year and determined to confer it in recognition of general education as redefined by the College faculty.

This program is a four-year scheme. As students have been allowed to enter in the middle of the old course of study to the bachelor's degree, so, for the time being, at least, they will be admitted in the middle of the new course of study to the bachelor's degree; that is, at the beginning of the conventional freshman year. And they will be admitted in a similar way.

As some students entering at the conventional junior year have had their work appraised and have been advised to follow some collegiate studies if they needed them, so some students entering at the conventional freshman year will have their previous work appraised and will be advised to follow certain studies in what we used to call the junior and senior year in high school if they need to.

If the student, on receiving his bachelor's degree, is not called into the service, and is qualified for further study, he may embark on a program to the master's degree, which will normally consume nine quarters, or he may enter one of the professional schools.

If the student, after taking his bachelor's degree, wishes to remain in the University, but does not care to proceed to a master's or a professional degree, he will receive, on leaving the University, a beautifully engraved certificate testifying to the work he has done.

This, then, is the organization which the University of Chicago has adopted. It seems to me simple, clear, and wise. But I have read in the papers that it does not seem so to everybody else. According to the press, the Southern Association, the Association of Universities, the Association of American

Colleges, and Dean Hawkes of Columbia, have all condemned what they conceived to be the plan of the University of Chicago.

Since none of these associations and individuals communicated with the University to find out what the plan was, it is not surprising that their observations were beside the point. The point is that the University of Chicago has a four-year program in liberal education beginning with the junior year in high school and ending with the end of the sophomore year in college.

Those who think, therefore, that there is a mystical beauty about the number four will be gratified to find that number in the title of our scheme. Those who think, on the other hand, that there is a vicious ugliness about the number two, will be gratified to hear there is no reference to that number in the program of the University of Chicago.

Now it is said that this scheme is radical, hasty, and ill considered. It certainly is not radical when compared with the proposal of the late Professor Barrett Wendell of Harvard University, who urged that the bachelor's degree be conferred upon every American citizen at birth.

Nor is the plan radical when compared with the suggestion of Father Gannon of Fordham, who seriously and sensibly, in his annual report published last week, argues for a 6-3-3 plan of education and the bachelor's degree at eighteen.

Nor can we regard the Chicago action as hasty or ill-considered when we remember it has been discussed for at least fifty years. Mr. Harper repeatedly called for "an honorable stopping place" at the end of the sophomore year. Mr. Butler of Columbia, beginning forty years ago, engaged in an ardent campaign for the change. Dr. Wilbur of

Stanford and Mr. Coffman of Minnesota conducted similar campaigns on the Pacific Coast and in the Northwest.

But the extreme conventionality and conservatism of the award of the bachelor's degree on the Chicago Plan is attested by the fact that in the January issue of *Harper's Magazine* a Harvard dean, almost in Mr. Harper's exact words, advocates an honorable stopping place at the end of the sophomore year, though he does not expressly state that the bachelor's degree is honorable.

The action of the University of Chicago is also criticized as unnecessary. It is said that the Associate in Arts degree or the college certificate can accomplish every useful purpose which the University has in view. The answer is that these devices have been tried and have failed. They might succeed if the bachelor's degree were eliminated altogether. But as long as that degree is the recognizable and popular insignia, and as long as it is offered by the institution, students will remain, unless they are called into service, until they get it. At the University of Chicago a negligible fraction of our students ever ask for the college certificate, for the very good reason that it costs five dollars.

Moreover the proposal to emphasize the Associate in Arts or the college certificate is really a proposal to let the bachelor's degree alone. The bachelor's degree should not be let alone because it interferes with the organization of education to the master's degree and in the professional schools. It renders it impossible for students to begin professional study at a time when they are intellectually prepared to undertake it, and makes the candidate for the master's degree fit the description of the graduate student which George Vincent used to give. He said that in his

time at Yale a graduate student was a man who didn't know enough to go home when the party was over.

It is said that the action of the University of Chicago is confusing. This implies that the bachelor's degree has a common, clear, and definite meaning today. I defy you to say what it is. Most people take refuge in the answer that the degree stands for four years after high school. You will note that this is not an educational definition. Unless the meaning of the bachelor's degree can be stated in educational terms, we must conclude that it is educationally meaningless.

But even its temporal meaning is rapidly disappearing. A great many institutions have reduced the curriculum to the bachelor's degree from four years to three, and some to two and a half. Some now admit students at the end of the junior year in high school.

Even if we were to concede that the meaning of an educational award can usefully be stated in terms of time, where, under war conditions, is the time to come from? The students are not going to be in college for the junior and senior year; they are going to be in the Army. It is our duty to reorganize the educational system so as to fit them for freedom before they are called to the colors.

The confusion about the bachelor's degree is not new. If you look at the degree horizontally in terms of geography, or vertically in terms of its history, you will see that in the last half century, at least, it has never meant in one place what it has meant in another, or at an earlier period what it has meant at a later.

Contrast the bachelor's degree from Harvard College with the same degree from the El Paso School of Animal Husbandry. Or contrast the Chicago cur-

riculum with that of Yale. A Chicago student has been allowed to count two years of work in the law school toward the B.A. degree. At Yale no work in the Law School has been counted to that degree.

Or, look at the degree in the light of its history. Dr. Wilbur tells me that the Palo Alto High School is now teaching every subject that Stanford University taught forty-five years ago. At the University of Chicago we are teaching freshmen subjects reserved for graduate students twenty-five years ago. Far from being confusing, the action of the University of Chicago gives meaning, and the only intelligible meaning, to the bachelor's degree. It makes the degree stand for liberal education, the education which every member of a free community should have in proportion to his capacity to receive it.

The University was criticized at the time of its announcement on the ground that to obtain the bachelor's degree students should have roamed through what are called "Fields of Concentration." These critics performed a remarkable feat of prophecy, for they condemned a curriculum which had not yet been formulated. They might have asked the University whether its course of study would make provision for "fields of concentration." Since the curriculum has not yet been formally adopted by the Senate, no legally definitive answer can be given. But the proposals which are likely to prevail contain enough fields of concentration to satisfy anybody, and too much to satisfy me.

I am unable to discover any necessary, logical, or even traditional connection between specialization and liberal education. If what these critics mean is that education should not be superficial, I will agree with them. It is because I

want to make American education less superficial that I favor its reorganization.

It is said that the action of the University of Chicago will undermine the educational institutions of the country. There are, in general, three kinds of institutions that will be affected: junior colleges, universities, and colleges of liberal arts.

The plan raises the junior colleges from their present anomalous position to a dignified, and even a central, place in the educational system. It clarifies the function of the universities by giving them an adequate period for liberal education, by separating advanced study and liberal education, by enabling them to develop a coherent program to the master's degree, and by eliminating the two two-year units which now thwart their efforts both in liberal education and advanced study.

If this plan is not the salvation of the liberal arts colleges of the country, then there is no salvation for them. If they can replace the juniors and seniors whom they will lose to the armed forces by students from the junior and senior years of high school, those colleges which are now struggling under the heavy load of financing the junior and senior year may be able to survive. The stronger colleges, most of which now offer the master's degree, will become stronger still, because they will be able to take over the last two years of high school, and work out an intelligible scheme of liberal education.

They will be able also to develop an intelligible curriculum to the master's degree. If the colleges of liberal arts do not follow the example of the University of Chicago, many of them will be forced to the wall because of the loss of students in their junior and senior years.

The charge most bitterly urged against the action of the University of Chicago is that it is impolite. It is said that the bachelor's degree is the common property of the colleges and universities of the country and that it can be offered two years earlier only by the common decision of these institutions. But, as we have already seen, the bachelor's degree is common only in a derogatory sense. The variations which characterize it from coast to coast were not introduced by the common act of all the institutions awarding the degree. For example, the universities which now propose to admit students at the end of their junior year in high school did not seek the approval of the Association of American Colleges, or of the Association of American Universities before announcing their plans.

But those who charge the University with impoliteness are either disingenuous or are living in a world of dreams. Anybody who has spent six months in higher education knows that we are members of the most conservative of all professions. To say that no change can be made unless it is made by the common decision of all institutions is tantamount to saying that no change should ever be made.

If we had waited for a common decision we never should have had graduate study, the elective system, the quar-

ter system, university extension, the university press, general examinations, the junior college, or any of the other major developments, good or bad, that have occurred in American education in the last seventy-five years.

The University of Chicago could not have abandoned intercollegiate football if it had been compelled to obtain the consent of a majority of other institutions before doing so. As it was, the University, when it gave up football, was accused of insulting, by implication, everybody who went on playing it.

Far from being impolite, the University of Chicago is simply performing in its historic role of guinea pig to the American educational system. I think you will agree that on the whole the changes introduced at the University since its foundation have been beneficial to the system.

The action of the Senate on January 22 marks the culmination of the University's efforts to make sense out of American education. The most serious obstacle to the success of these efforts has been the national passion for the bachelor's degree. The University now proposes to use that passion for good educational ends, and the result, over a long period of time, may be real colleges and real universities in the United States.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES¹

RUSSELL M. COOPER

Cornell College

THOSE of you who attended the North Central Association meetings last spring may recall that in a joint session very similar to this we had an opportunity to explain the activities of our Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts.² I shall not ask you to pass an examination over what was said on that occasion, but you may remember that President Turck of Macalester College³ and Superintendent DeWitt S. Morgan of Indianapolis⁴ joined with me in a discussion of this project. Since that time, the program has moved steadily forward and today we come again to report on the status of the study and to invite your criticisms and suggestions.

Perhaps it should be emphasized at the outset that our committee has been concerned with the preparation of high school teachers in colleges of liberal arts. This confinement to liberal arts institutions is not due to any spirit of exclusiveness, but is simply an outgrowth of the fact that such institutions and the character of this preparation does differ in some measure from the teacher education in universities or teachers colleges. Every one recognizes, of course, that excellent teacher education is available in these other types of institutions

and it is our hope that each may develop its unique potentialities to the utmost and then share its best experiences for the mutual enrichment of all.

We inaugurated our program two years ago by studying the educational procedures in twelve representative liberal arts colleges of the Middle West, hoping thereby to get a picture of teacher education as it actually exists in this type of institution. Following this study, we issued in January, 1941, a twenty-page mimeographed report summarizing the findings and setting forth the issues that had emerged. With this report as a background, we then called a series of ten conferences located at strategic points in the area, and invited the professors of all liberal arts colleges, particularly the subject-matter teachers, to spend a week-end facing their responsibilities for teacher education and discussing together their present practices.

The interest in these conferences exceeded all expectation. A total of 1,345 delegates from 195 colleges and eighteen high schools attended the sessions, and post-conference reports which were returned by over four hundred of the delegates demonstrated that there was a wide carry-over of interest upon their campuses back home. The conferences themselves demonstrated, however, that there is a great need for educational experimentation and for well-validated evidence as to what constitutes best educational practice in liberal arts colleges. Experimental studies and surveys have long been carried forward in elementary and secondary education as well as in

¹ Read before the joint session of the three Commissions at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

² Russell M. Cooper, "Working with Liberal Arts College Faculties on Teacher Education," NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, XVI (April, 1942), 396-400.

³ Charles J. Turck, "The Preparation of Secondary School Teachers by Liberal Arts Colleges as Viewed by the College," *ibid.*, 401-5.

⁴ DeWitt S. Morgan, "The Preparation of Secondary School Teachers by Liberal Arts Colleges as Viewed by the High School," *ibid.*, 406-8.

many universities, to the great advantage of those institutions. Such studies, however, have not been so prevalent in the liberal arts colleges and our committee now determined that such opportunities should likewise be encouraged in them.

An appeal to the General Education Board brought forth an additional grant of funds and the committee thereupon invited all the liberal arts colleges of this area, whether members of the North Central Association or not, to apply for inclusion in a cooperative study of their teacher-education programs. Again, the response was most gratifying. Of the 205 colleges invited, eighty submitted formal applications for inclusion and thirty-four others wrote expressing their profound regret that circumstances should prevent their applying at that time. It was an exceedingly difficult and painful task for the committee to have to select from the large number of meritorious applications the twenty-eight which were finally included. It is believed that in these twenty-eight we have a quite representative cross-section of liberal arts education in this area, the colleges being located in fourteen different states, representing thirteen religious denominations and ranging in size from around two hundred to fifteen hundred students. Proceeding geographically, the names of these colleges are as follows: Jamestown, North Dakota; Yankton, South Dakota; Nebraska Wesleyan; Southwestern and Bethany Colleges in Kansas; Phillips University in Oklahoma; The College of the Ozarks in Arkansas; Drury and Lindenwood Colleges in Missouri; Central, Cornell, Dubuque and Luther Colleges in Iowa; St. Olaf and St. Scholastica in Minnesota; Milwaukee-Downer College in Wisconsin; Mundelein, Knox, Bradley Polytechnic Institute, and Illinois Wesleyan in Illinois; Goshen, DePauw, and

Wabash in Indiana; Hiram, Denison, Wittenberg, and Ashland in Ohio; and West Virginia Wesleyan in West Virginia.

Each one of these colleges has appointed a director of educational studies and a committee from the faculty to advise with him in the program. These twenty-eight local directors were invited to the University of Minnesota last summer to spend six weeks in a Workshop studying the problems of higher education and outlining their procedures for leading their faculties in these two years of study. We found that these directors were in themselves a most diversified group, representing fifteen different departments of the curriculum. The energy with which they attacked the problems at the Workshop and the devotion with which they have pursued the projects since their return to their respective campuses this year are a splendid testimony to the high type of leadership which is present in these colleges.

During this year I have been permitted to take half-time from my normal political science teaching at Cornell College in order to visit these twenty-eight colleges and to assist in the coordination of their studies. I have spent one day on each campus since the first of October and in several cases have had an opportunity for a return visit. Each college is left free to decide for itself the problems which it believes most vital on its campus and most susceptible to study. Each college also determines its own methods of attack. As a result, the programs naturally differ very widely, but it is believed that by the end of the two-year period we should have a large body of experience to share with each other and with the other institutions of this region.

It is impossible, of course, to delineate at this time all of the projects which

are under way among these twenty-eight colleges. Such a list is available.¹ I would, however, like to suggest here a few projects which will indicate the general character of the program and perhaps arouse questions in your mind which may then be discussed in fuller detail during the question period. In considering these projects, it must be remembered that we are interested in the total preparation of the teacher, including not only his professional education courses, but also his mastery of the subject matter which he is to teach in high school, his general education and capacity for rich living, his personality development, and his capacity for leadership. Obviously, for most of these objectives the subject-matter teachers who are in charge of the prospective teacher for more than four-fifths of his college experience must accept a major responsibility. It is partly in recognition of this fact that twenty-three of the twenty-eight local directors are themselves subject-matter teachers in their respective colleges.

It is logical that at the outset a college should determine what are the fundamental needs of students which should be serviced in the general education program and then examine the institutional objectives and the instructional outcomes to see whether these needs are really being adequately serviced. Some of our institutions have made comprehensive studies of their entering freshmen to discover their abilities, their socio-cultural backgrounds, their high school preparation and their college ambitions. On the other hand, some colleges are discovering student needs through surveys of their alumni and the responsibilities they will face. Whatever

the approach, such studies revealing the concrete and basic needs of their students are proving invaluable to faculties who are analyzing the validity of their programs. The simple process of asking each professor to state the specific aims of each course and asking the faculty as a whole to frame the objectives of the college is a sobering and salutary experience.

One of the problems of greatest concern among our institutions is how we may assure to each student a broad general education which will make him an interesting and alert person and a resourceful, imaginative teacher capable of showing the inter-relationships of knowledge. Obviously, in four short years, a student cannot take every course in the institution nor even one course in every department if he is to fulfill all the other requirements for graduation. How then may he secure a broad perspective and yet avoid a meaningless superficiality? To meet this problem, our colleges are using several approaches. About a third are employing broad divisional courses, some of a survey character, some integrating the material of several departments around particular problems or interests, and some built around the student himself. Nearly a third of our colleges have instituted or are studying the idea of divisional majors, permitting students, and particularly prospective teachers, to major in broad areas instead of in particular departments, thus assuring wider perspective and probably improving opportunities for placement. Two of the colleges have gone even farther in this respect, introducing functional majors which cut across even the divisions. For example, in one institution a new major has just been inaugurated entitled "Peace and Reconstruction" which permits the student to take appropriate courses in history, economics, political science, psy-

¹ Russell M. Cooper, "Liberal Arts Colleges Study Teacher Preparation," *NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY*, XVI (January, 1942), 262-67.

chology, foreign language, and other areas which will equip him for leadership in the post-war world. There is considerable interest also in efforts to tie together a student's educational experience during the senior year through divisional seminars, comprehensive examinations with preparatory studies, or other courses adapted to this purpose.

Along with this interest in giving the student broader perspectives, however, there is a parallel movement frequently found in the same institutions which insists that the prospective teacher must also have a deeper experience—must be a more genuinely competent scholar. As efforts to this end, several of the colleges offer research courses where the student may plumb to the depths of some problem and secure thereby the satisfaction of mastery as well as skill in scientific investigation. Honors courses and examinations are directed to this same end and it is interesting to note that some colleges actually go so far as to require their students to be able to read and write the English language before they will be granted a diploma!

It must be clear, however, that mere revisions of the curriculum to permit a broader or a more intensive selection of courses do not in themselves assure a sound education. Quite as important as curriculum, and indeed really as a phase of curriculum, one must consider the personality and procedures of the college professors themselves. I have long since discovered that the catalog descriptions of courses have the most tenuous relation to the actual content of those courses. So much depends upon how the professor approaches the work and the methods he uses. Clearly the instructional procedures employed by college professors are of vital importance in the preparation of teachers for they not only determine the character

of the prospective teacher's understanding, but they are also an object lesson in methodology which the graduate is almost certain to imitate when he himself confronts a class. How then can we improve college instructional procedures?

The different colleges in our study are attacking this problem from widely varying angles. Some are studying the freshman English course, instituting remedial reading clinics and writing laboratories and then carefully measuring the results. Some are developing special programs for the superior student. Others are evaluating their examination methods, the grading systems, the attention paid to individual differences, and still others are experimenting with democratic procedures wherein the students help to frame the objectives and outline the procedures of the course. In at least two institutions, the faculty members have had their characteristics rated by the students on a sliding scale, an experience which may be painful but which is unquestionably salutary.

The guidance program of a campus is coming to be recognized as one of the most important features of the entire educational experience and this is particularly true of teachers who should be carefully selected for the profession, carefully counselled as to course combinations and personality development, and carefully placed into appropriate teaching positions upon graduation. Our smaller colleges have long prided themselves upon the intimate personal attention which they give to the individual student, but have not always paused to determine how much these allegations are supported by the facts. Here surely is a fruitful field for investigation and many of the colleges in our study are attacking it eagerly. The problem involves the determination of an adequate testing program, the accumulation and

centralization of useful records, the instruction of faculty advisers in the meaning and use of these data, and a continuous and systematic coordination of the entire personnel program. In one of our colleges, the usual requirements for graduation have been relaxed and the counselling program is given almost the full responsibility for assuring the student a well-rounded and integrated educational experience. In this, as with the other projects, the results must be carefully measured to determine whether the innovation is desirable and how it can be improved.

It should be noted also that our colleges are beginning to recognize their continuing responsibility for the adjustment of their graduates out in the field. In several cases, the college faculty members, particularly the subject-matter professors, are being encouraged to visit high schools where their graduates are teaching. Such visits apparently are yielding great values, not only for the high school teacher who may profit from the friendly suggestions offered, but also for the college professor who thereby gets a clearer understanding of the problems facing his graduating students and an appreciation of the experiences in the background of his entering freshmen. In four of our colleges, there have been held already this year conferences of alumni teachers who returned to discuss with the college faculty members and with the seniors preparing for the teaching profession the problems they are facing on the field and the adequacy of their college preparation.

Closely related to the problem of guidance is the whole area of extra-curricular activities which plays such an important role in the personality development of the prospective teacher. On nearly every campus there is the problem of concentration of extra-curricular

experiences in the hands of a minority of the students while a very large number fail to experience much leadership training. It is clear also that in many cases the quality of extra-curricular performance and leadership has failed to contribute to any real growth for the individuals involved. The problem is to discover ways of spreading out activity participation and improving performance while at the same time permitting the student to retain the zest and independent creativity which he now enjoys. One obvious approach is through a careful study of existing conditions and several of our colleges have been undertaking just that. One institution, for example, has recorded the ways in which students spent every hour for an entire week in order to determine how persons of varying ability and classification divided their time between activities, studying, and other pursuits.

If we may turn now briefly to the field of professional education, we shall all recognize at once that here, too, we have a central phase of the preparation of high school teachers. As we all know, education departments have frequently been under attack because of alleged impracticality, overlapping of content, and abstruseness of verbiage. Many of these charges have undoubtedly been grossly exaggerated, but in most of our colleges the education professors have themselves been taking the initiative in a reexamination of their own courses and procedures. They have been examining the content of their courses to eliminate duplication and particular attention has been given to the special methods courses which frequently are taught by subject-matter professors and are not too closely coordinated with the other educational work. In several instances, also, the practice teaching has come under careful scrutiny and programs are emerging for integrating the

practice teaching experience with the methods courses and to some extent with the other educational offerings, building the whole professional program around the practical problems which emerge from actual experience in the high school class room. Here again the suggestions of recent graduates out in the teaching field are proving invaluable to colleges undertaking such revision.

This then is a sketchy review of the educational studies which are being pursued under the aegis of our committee. There is just one further matter that I should like to discuss for a moment for I know it must be in the background of the thinking of you all; namely, what is the war going to do to this program? There is no question but that the war has already affected us in several ways, some favorably and some unfavorably. The greatest difficulty of course is that the time and energies of faculties and student bodies alike have been considerably diverted to the working out of accelerated programs, new defense courses, and other campus and community responsibilities related to the war effort. In other words, there is simply less time available for these studies on many campuses than had been expected when the projects were inaugurated last September.

On the other hand, all of our colleges recognize that though the difficulties be great, the crucial importance of this program has become more imperative than ever before. The war will not last forever and when peace comes we shall then be faced with reconstruction problems of such appalling magnitude that it is a serious question whether our democracy can fully grasp them, let alone solve them. During the let-down period following the war, it is absolutely essen-

tial that we have a citizenry that can comprehend the character of our social issues, which has a deep and abiding love and appreciation for our cultural values, and which can maintain within the individual a sense of philosophic perspective and poise that can carry him through the storm. The task of preparing such an able and responsible citizenry rests primarily upon our colleges and public schools, and particularly the public schools where 70 percent of our people conclude their formal education. Perhaps the most important service which our colleges can render to the ultimate welfare of America will be to prepare for this high task of public school teaching a body of teachers competent for their job.

Time is short and the need is urgent. It is probable that a smaller number of qualified persons will seek to enter the profession due to the call to national service and the lure of defense industry. But this must not deter us in our determination to furnish the public schools with the very best products we can turn out. And fortunately, one factor works in our favor. During a time of social and educational fluidity in which we find ourselves at present, there is an opportunity to plan and carry through reforms which would seem utterly impossible amidst the inertia of a more normal period. We can, if we will, capitalize upon the pressure for educational change and through systematic study and carefully planned procedures emerge with a sounder educational program than we have ever had before. Such is the challenge to our teacher-education institutions at this moment and the coordination of these efforts is the role that our committee seeks to fulfill.

IMPACT OF THIS STUDY UPON THE TOTAL COLLEGE PROGRAM OF AN INSTITUTION ¹

BENJAMIN F. SCHWARTZ

Nebraska Wesleyan University

I HAVE been asked to give my personal reaction to the impact of the continuing study upon the total college program of my institution, Nebraska Wesleyan University. To watch this program in operation is a stimulating experience for a college president, especially for one as new in this field as your speaker. To participate in it during the strategic period in which it came to our campus makes it doubly significant.

Nebraska Wesleyan University is situated in the capital city of the state, in the very shadow of a truly great educational institution, the University of Nebraska. Our name betrays us. We are of Methodist persuasion, and as such are familiar with the method of personal testimony. Likewise, we are familiar with such things as deficits and the ups and downs of church benevolence. Our founders had a great dream of establishing what they called a "Northwestern of the Prairies." Unfortunately, this dream was rudely shattered by the depression, augmented by ten years of continuous drouth. In our location at the edge of the dust bowl, nothing is more glorious than a Nebraska sunset, but for us these sunsets recently meant the end of a grand dream.

We were frankly facing a tremendous crisis. Should we disintegrate as a university or integrate as a liberal arts college? That was the question. We chose to integrate, to consolidate the various colleges and settle down to a

program of quality education. We earnestly purposed to substitute for the impossible illusion of bigness a more realistic program of thoroughness.

But settling down was not an easy matter. Our alumni had been nurtured on the idea that Alma Mater would some day outshine anything west of the Missouri River. To them, consolidation meant defeat and disgrace. But that is another story.

More important for the purposes of this true confession was the problem of the ivory towers. Well-meaning friends generally warn a new college president against shutting himself up in an ivory tower. Unfortunately, they generally forget to warn him against the much more sinister ivory towers he will inevitably face, not from the inside, but from the outside. These are the college departments. At registration time eager hands reach out from these ivory towers to seize the more promising freshmen and drag them off to the departmental trophy room. From their frowning battlements come the resounding claims of omniscience if not omnipotence, while the banners of Greek letter professional fraternities float defiantly overhead.

If the continuing program had done nothing else for us, it would still have justified itself because of its successful assault upon these ivory towers. Before long educationists were actually speaking to members of the academic staff and were finding a basis for effective cooperation and understanding in the detail work to which they were assigned. Soon divisional committees were

¹ Read in discussion of "Teacher Education in Liberal Arts Colleges" at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

marching like ancient Israel around the walls of Jericho, and, like that famous citadel, the ivory towers fell at the sound of their trumpets. Incoming freshmen were no longer considered as departmental trophies. Rather, they were ushered into a cultured experience in which social progress was interpreted in terms of the democratic way of life. Sometimes there was such a casual air about the whole thing that, like the elder brother in the parable of Jesus, some observers have become angry and have refused to go in. At least, they have expressed themselves somewhat critically.

There are times, to be sure, when I must confess to an uneasy feeling. There is a danger that some features of this program, especially the trend toward survey courses, may become an unfortunate back door sampling of academic handouts. It may be reasonably doubted whether the accumulated scraps of information are sufficient to ease the hunger of our oncoming generation, or whether this business is true education if the treasures are tied up in a red bandana and carried off gleefully on the end of a stick to the accompaniment of boogy woogy.

Perhaps our greatest problem, if we may continue for a little while this mildly critical mood, is to keep general education from getting too general or too trivial.

It may not be a particularly apt illustration, but I well recall the terrible institutions of my boyhood known as parlors or front rooms. They were dusted once a week and hermetically sealed the rest of the time unless there was Sunday company. Then the guests were seated stiffly on hair-cloth chairs and sofas to indulge in stilted company manners for a painful hour or so. No doubt it was a distinct gain for rural

civilization when parlors went out with hanging lamps and button shoes. But the modern rumpus room, with its easy familiarity generally extending to all parts of the house, can hardly be considered an improvement. Nor can the informal midnight raid on the icebox ever quite take the place of the good old Thanksgiving dinner. After all, when the educational feast is spread, it is no great hardship to be on one's good behavior and to demonstrate that one has learned to know the difference between a knife and a fork.

If somehow we can succeed in letting the clean air blow through the dusty educational parlor, and at the same time preserve some of the sense of decorum which distinguishes a house from a barn, if we can break down the ivory towers without leveling all their loveliness to be wantonly trampled upon, it will be a real achievement. Otherwise, the experiment may prove entirely too costly for us all.

When, by way of caution, all this has been said, I hasten to add that one of the saving factors with us was a thing we call inertia. There have been occasional tensions in committees when particularly radical changes were advocated. The favorite expression of our dean is always, "I prefer evolution to revolution." The net result has been that we have made haste slowly. Nevertheless, we have made haste.

Another distinct advantage which this continuing study has brought to our campus is a more open-minded search for cultural and educational perspective. It was rather difficult for members of our faculty brought up in the classical tradition to acknowledge that specialization and excellence in performance in a particular field were not so essential to the student's well-being as appreciation and understanding of his total en-

vironment. However, we soon discovered that this aspect of our basic philosophy of education called for an adjustment.

Perhaps the basic philosophy under which we operated might be summarized as follows:

1. The accumulation of facts is not the end result of learning. Only as it affects behavior can learning be significant.
2. Without the learner's conscious effort actually to attain certain ends which have value for him, learning itself has no meaning.
3. Personality is not a series of water-tight compartments such as intellect, health, emotion, etc., but is a unified organism functioning in all these areas.

In short, there has been developed a vital interest in the student as an individual. We call it "Personalized Education." We are trying to recognize the fact that the abundant life is not necessarily limited to the star performers. Often, in fact, those who have specialized too ardently have ended as cultural paupers, while others with lesser capacities have far outstripped their more brilliant companions in their ability to achieve lasting satisfaction and lay up cultural treasure for themselves and contribute to the welfare of civilization.

Hence, this continuing study has brought us to the place where we are willing to make general education a vital part of our program. We have not yet arrived at a definition which satisfies everybody but, just as a physicist uses electricity without knowing all about it, we have applied the new idea to our course offerings, particularly to incoming freshmen, and have discovered latent abilities and potentialities which were not dreamed of in the older educational philosophies.

Again, one of the greatest values we have discovered has been the stimulus for a continuing study on the part of practically every member of our faculty. It is proposed to set up desirable criteria

for teacher evaluation with special emphasis on self-evaluation for improvement. With such a goal there is a certain satisfaction in moving forward together. Once we were convinced that the improvement of secondary school teaching is primarily our job as liberal arts colleges, we set out with a will to make a maximum contribution toward this end. We examined many phases of our campus program in order to bring the whole up to this new level. We are trying to improve both ourselves and our environment.

Each faculty member is assigned a place on a committee. There are fact-finding committees to discover alumni attitudes and to spy out the exact conditions in the high schools. There are committees to look into vital aspects of our own program. They are going into the matter of student health, not merely as a military necessity, but as a minimum requirement for progressive leadership. They are studying the religious beliefs and practices of our students and are discovering some startling inconsistencies as well as some encouraging consistencies. General education is being carefully scrutinized from every angle. A divisional organization has been proposed and is being thoroughly discussed. It was found that there was considerable overlapping of courses and the curriculum committee is proposing remedies. The faculty study room shelves are laden with materials giving the experience of other institutions. By comparing our experience with theirs, numerous methods of improvement are being suggested.

We are moving ahead together. Yet each faculty member is making his contribution to the total program. Alumni, once critical, are becoming cooperative. The student body feels the stimulus of this faculty interest. Discussion has a

way of getting out to the campus and beyond. Occasionally parents are asking about general education and its values. This comradeship in a great enterprise is of tremendous value.

Naturally, Pearl Harbor has interrupted the movement considerably. Acceleration is in the air, but fortunately the techniques as well as the spirit developed by this continuing study are proving themselves a most welcome asset in the new movement. If our continuing program has real value, it must be big enough to include these special emphases. With us, it was born in a crisis and this new challenge merely accents its value. We must continue to train better teachers to send to high schools where they may set up a more effective program so that we can accelerate our program more effectively. It is all part of the same problem. Standards must be maintained; the work must go on.

Finally, I wish to pay tribute to the most indispensable factor—leadership. We were most fortunate to have as our director a woman of indomitable spirit. She was handicapped by physical limitations which would have discouraged most people, but she carried on in spite of repeated interruptions for surgical treatment. Her enthusiasm is contagi-

ous; her diplomacy is superb; her determination is invincible. It is a delight to work with her.

Perhaps it is this human factor most of all that has made the experience so fascinating. It is one thing to theorize about the outcome of education for the individual in terms of integrated, purposeful personality, but to see such a personality actually demonstrating such fine qualities of leadership, that is the crowning achievement and the greatest incentive to carry on. The continuing study will always mean to those of us who participate in it, the luminous personality of Dr. Rose B. Clark.

Summing up, therefore, may I say that our continuing study, coming when it did during the process of integration and consolidation at Nebraska Wesleyan, has proved a tremendously helpful experience. It has broken down departmentalism with its ivory towers, brought a wholesome emphasis upon general education, and led us to explore realistically the bases of education, to organize working groups eager to make constructive contributions to this strategic educational achievement, and to set up the techniques and the leadership for a healthy continuing process of self-evaluation and development.

PROCEDURE USED IN THE STUDY ON A CAMPUS¹

FORBES B. WILEY

Denison University

SOME people put manners off and on like a garment,—company manners, we are wont to call them. A friend of mine was guest for Sunday dinner in a neighbor's home. Impressed by the excellent table manners of the small children of the family, she complimented them upon such perfect behavior. "Humph," said the youngest, "you just ought to see us eat once when we don't have company"! These "company manners," says Dr. Cooper, are distinctly "off" for me here today. He has given me permission, so to speak, to take the chicken bones up in my fingers, to put my elbows on the table, and smear my mouth from ear to ear. Or, in other words, I may blow my own horn before you with considerable lack of restraint. You, Dr. Cooper, have placed this cup of privilege before me, I have drunk, and now, like wine rushing through my veins, I feel the flush of this new freedom. Because of this state that I am now in, it will be for you, sir, not for me, to apologize to my listeners for my conduct in talking freely about myself and my own campus.

Intoxicated as I am with this license, I am still sober enough to realize that we of today cannot claim all of the credit for the advances made in our colleges, that one cannot discuss adequately the procedure used upon a campus without saying a word about the readiness of that campus for that procedure. Denison's 111 years is much like that of all of the older colleges of liberal arts in this North Central group. It is a case of where "others have labored and we have entered into the fruit of their

labors." I venture to mention two names in this history: E. Benjamin Andrews, famous president of Brown University and later Chancellor of the University of Nebraska, who served as our president during four of the earlier years of his life, making a profound and lasting effect upon the educational spirit of our campus; and William Rainey Harper. Dr. Harper first saw Denison when he, as leader and cornetist of the New Concord town band, brought that organization to Granville for a commencement season engagement. The inspiration of the contacts then made, he wrote, led him to leave an apprenticeship in his father's harness shop and continue his education. Later, fresh from the receiving of the doctorate, he served for four years upon our staff, both as principal of our academy and as instructor in Latin and Greek. Still later, he took so many from our group with him to the great new educational experiment here in this city that some of our boastful supporters ventured to call Denison the mother of the University of Chicago.

The search for truth in the field of science had, for a denominational college, a remarkably early and vigorous start upon our campus with a small and enthusiastic group of research men. For fifty-seven years the bulletin of our scientific laboratories, a research journal subsidized from the first by the Trustees of the College, has had its exchanges with scientific publications in nearly every country on the face of the globe. This spirit of scientific research has continued to be strong.

Experiments in teaching, self-analyses,

¹ Read in discussion of "Teacher Education in Liberal Arts College" at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

faculty retreats for educational conferences, educational investigations, are not new to our campus.

In addition to this background, it is our good fortune, we believe, to have entered this two-year study under the sympathetic and stimulating leadership of a young and progressive president.

May we bolster up the director just a bit? Some have felt that his varied teaching experience is a qualification of some value to his work, he having been a teacher of every grade from the primary up, including the small and the large high school, the academy, the small and the larger college, and so on into graduate teaching in the university. Vivid is his memory of the country one-room school. Swinging his tin dinner pail, he would walk again that long mile through the deep snows of a cold Michigan winter, an hour in advance of the children, build the wood fire, sweep the school house, unbundle the little youngsters as they arrive, thaw out the frosted hands, ring the bell, hear nine grades recite—holding the infants on his lap as they learned to read—share in the games at recess and noon, bundle the smaller ones up again, and send all home at four o'clock, going at times with the children of this family or that for the night. Such experiences should challenge one to remember the aspects of education close to life itself, if head in the clouds, perhaps feet upon the ground.

Previous to the Workshop, President Brown indicated certain areas where we might well place emphasis, certain leaders whom we might contact, certain techniques with which we might well become familiar. Added to these were suggestions from the cooperating committee.

The Workshop, with its lectures, readings, observations, conferences, and discussions, strengthened four convictions; first, that we should set up

horizontal majors, "transdepartmental majors" we have come to call them, that we might more fully meet the needs of the large group of our students who are interested in training themselves in fields which demand a broader background, vocational or otherwise, than is usually afforded in the traditional departmental major; second, that we should convince our staff that the training of teachers, about one-third of our output, is not the responsibility of the Department of Education alone but of all that we might secure the sympathetic, even enthusiastic, interest, the constructive criticism, the helpful influence of everybody toward the improvement of our teacher training program; third, that we should continue to experiment along the line of individualizing our work both in counselling and instruction that, among other things, we might make sure that the brightest students, as well as those of average or less ability, have tasks comparable with their abilities; fourth, that we should encourage individuals and groups of the faculty to initiate or to continue educational investigations and experiments of interest to themselves and others, the committee cooperating with each and coordinating the work of all, at least acting as a clearing house.

This committee upon our campus has the same personnel as that of our course planning or Curriculum Committee; namely, the Dean of Men, the Dean of Women, and four members from the instructional staff, one of the latter being the head of our Department of Education. The one difference between these two committees is in the chairmanship; thus we sit as one committee or the other by only the change of chairmen. This has proved to be a wise arrangement. There is never the necessity of repeated explanations and discussions, always complete sympathy and coopera-

tion between the two committees, and no hampering by red tape or otherwise. It has long been our policy to augment our faculty committees by calling in student leaders for consultation and discussion as occasions seemed to demand.

That there might be no drag in informing and gaining the support of our faculty for our two-year program, the President called that body back one day early in the fall for a full day's educational conference. The planning of this conference was in the hands of members of our committee and we were given ample time for our presentation before the faculty and for their discussion of it. At this time each member of the staff was given a blank to indicate to the committee in what particular phase of the work he was especially interested, what suggestions he might have for the committee, and what individual pieces of educational research he might wish to carry out. The returns were very helpful. In addition to this conference there was cooperation at other points. A reference shelf of books and topics pertinent to our study was established in the library; the *Faculty Forum*, a mimeographed sheet circulated at intervals to the faculty, was redressed in more attractive form and placed quite largely at the disposal of the committee; and a monthly educational conference of the faculty was projected.

Following up this initiation of the program, the committee has taken its work most seriously. It meets regularly every Tuesday afternoon, with occasional extra meetings as required, the total number of meetings to date being about twenty-five.

Admitting that the war has made heavy demands upon the larger number of our staff, slowing up some elements of our program, accelerating others,

coloring all, may I now report upon progress. In doing so, I shall reverse the order in which the four topics were introduced above.

First, then, I speak of the individual or group activities and investigations. One group of six instructors in French, Spanish, Education, Mathematics, etc., is carrying out a class-visiting project, one visiting classes of the others and then all meeting together for discussion of methods used. This gives promise of having a very stimulating effect in improving methods of instruction. A second group has been studying the effect upon the study habits of our students of the various methods used on our campus, under the thesis that some methods encourage a fasting, followed by a gorging, of the mind, while it is our duty to train students to cultivate an organized and well-balanced mental life. One instructor has had the cooperation of a large group of the faculty in a student rating of the teaching staff. This was conducted at the close of the first semester of the year. His report on how a study of such ratings, repeated at intervals, has helped him improve his own instruction has been published.¹ A student-faculty committee is making a careful study of social and recreational life on the campus. Extensive charts have been prepared and from them a study of the trends of student elections of courses and of majors has been made with attempts to explain such trends. One member of the staff is endeavoring to stimulate the use of the reading shelf by means of references or quotations in the *Faculty Forum*. There is an illustration on the next page.

In the matter of individual attention, we are departing from the fifteen Carnegie entrance units and accepting, with

¹ L. C. Steckle, "The Utility of the Instructor's Rating Scale," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXII (November, 1941), 631-35.

reference to pattern, students from the upper one-fourth of graduating classes. We are strengthening our counselling program by including friendly counselors, academic counselors, student counselors; we have reduced our specific requirements to English and Physical Education; we are considering the releasing of a control group from all requirements, excepting those agreed upon

Have you read—?

DONHAM, WALLACE BRETT. "The College in a Changing World," *Harpers Magazine*, January 1942.

Exceedingly timely, this article might have been written at our request. It underscores our problems and suggests not only that we do something about them, but also possible things to do. Every member of the faculty ought to read this article.

after careful individual diagnosis and counselling; and we are emphasizing honor work for superior juniors and seniors. Many of those qualifying for honor work are released from a certain amount of regular class work to pursue some individual project. This is not new with us but the privilege has been until now but little used. Our committee has given it a "blood transfusion." The number participating this year increased over last by about ten fold. Here are some examples: Two young men of unusual ability and good background in mathematical physics were released from class restrictions and allowed to read into advanced material at will. They read an amazing amount of involved work, even including considerable Einstein theory, and that with comprehension. They have secured choice fellowships for graduate work. In another case, a senior is making a careful study of the vocational interest program as it concerns students and faculty upon our campus. Still another

is doing some original research in the blood count of red and white corpuscles of a number of students, correlating results with time of day, amount of sleep, and the like.

In the matter of preparation of teachers we are having the hearty cooperation of the staff of the Department of Education, the student teachers in training, and the subject-matter members of the staff who are handling courses in special methods. We had these latter together in conference, stressing a closer relationship between the method courses and the student teaching program, the method teacher and the critic teacher, in fact all members of the college staff with those of the high school staff where our student teaching is done. The teachers of our county were our guests at an institute in the fall. We are endeavoring to comprehend and emphasize the fact that we all are working together for one great purpose. At our invitation a member of the staff of the State Department of Education has been in conference with the committee answering questions that have been raised and giving us suggestions. An institute is being planned to be held in April to which we are inviting our in-service teachers, our in-training teachers, the principal of a large city high school, one from a smaller high school, and a representative from the State Department. The aim of this conference is to obtain and evaluate suggestions for strengthening our education program. We feel convinced that we shall obtain thereby for our whole staff a deeper knowledge and appreciation of professional educational training and a keener interest in what the high school teacher needs to know.

In this reverse order which we are following, we now come to our original first point, now our final one; namely, the lowering of departmental fences for the building of transdepartmental ma-

jors. Here again we can report progress. Since there is some sentiment upon our campus against the so-called survey courses either in science or in the social sciences, we have had conferences with members of the staffs of different departments to encourage an increasing number of the departments to separate the prospective majors from the non-majors in the introductory courses. This was done to the end that the latter may not be subjected to all of the technical training required of the former. It is too soon to state results on this point but the present indications are encouraging. As stated earlier, we are convinced that a college of liberal arts should provide the broad type of major for many of its students. There are stirrings upon the campus for such transdepartmental majors in South American relations, democracy, reconstruction, business, and homemaking. The reconstruction major is being projected along the lines indicated below:

CORE SUBJECTS FOR TRANSDPARTMENTAL
MAJOR IN
CITIZENSHIP AND RECONSTRUCTION

Economics—Principles and Problems, Elementary, and Labor

History—Modern European, and United States

Government—United States, and International Relations

Philosophy—Problems of Conduct, and Modern Social Philosophies

Psychology—Introduction, and Social

Sociology—Introduction to, and Race Problems in the United States

Problems of Post War Reconstruction

The foregoing array of subjects totals about fifty hours. In addition to these there are a series of choices of related

electives, one being forty-five hours in two languages, one thirty hours in one language, and so on. I shall not go into further detail in this report. We shall be glad to furnish further information to anyone desiring it.

I wish now to report briefly upon what seems to be a unique experiment upon our campus; to wit, a transdepartmental course, "Problems of Peace and Post-War Reconstruction." Fifteen members of our staff are cooperating in the lectures for this course. Eighty-seven of our upper class students have elected it for one or two hours of college credit, depending upon the amount of outside work done. The instructors meet at intervals to insure that the course is a coordinated one, the Dean of Men acting as the chief coordinator. The topics are classified under the following heads: psychology (the first lecture being upon the psychological reasons for war), sociology, economics, and politics. The final two lectures are to be given by President Brown with the titles, "How Can Public Opinion Be Directed Toward Peace?" and "What Faith Can We Live By?" At the close of each topic the instructors in that group, with two of the students presenting to them the questions prepared by the class, conduct a panel discussion. The course will culminate May 22 and 23 in an institute to be held on our campus on this topic of world reconstruction. This course is causing much enthusiasm among all who are participating in it. It is also attracting many visitors from outside the university.

TECHNIQUES OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION APPLIED IN NORTH CENTRAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹

C. A. WEBER

Galva, Illinois

IN A previously published article² the basic assumptions for evaluation of techniques employed in secondary schools for educating teachers in service were discussed. In this article the writer presents the techniques which were reported to be the most promising by the teachers and principals of the selected sample of 247 North Central secondary schools. Subsequent articles in the *QUARTERLY* will be concerned with details of the study and the implications for school administration and supervision.

The Subcommittee on In-service Education of Teachers selected a sample of North Central secondary schools which would represent a general cross section of all North Central secondary schools. First, a list of schools of the Association which had participated in the Eight-Year Study and the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards was set up. Second, a list of secondary schools thought to have better than average programs of in-service education, as judged by state representatives of the Association, was secured. Third, a careful study of the number of member schools in each of the twenty states was made. Fourth, a careful study of the distribution of member schools according to size of the staff was also concluded.

After these data had been assembled a composite list of schools was arranged which included all those schools reported in the first two inquiries mentioned above. After this list was completed the committee sent questionnaires to a sufficiently large number of schools so that the final sample, on the basis of usable questionnaires returned, would be at least 7 percent of the total secondary school membership and typical with respect to geographical location and size of schools. All told, 325 questionnaires were mailed to schools. Out of this number 283 were returned, but only 247 were usable in all areas. Twenty-one schools returned the questionnaires with the explanation that they had nothing to report.

Seventy-one schools requested extra copies of the instrument for their own use. The committee mailed 213 copies in reply to such requests.

The final distribution of the sample compared very favorably with the actual distribution of all member secondary schools. On the basis of size of schools, the correlation of the sample with the total membership is expressed by a coefficient of correlation of $+.67$. On the basis of geographical location, the coefficient is $+.89$. There were thirty-three schools in the sample employing ten teachers or fewer, seventy-eight employing from eleven to twenty teachers, thirty-four employing from twenty-one to thirty teachers, forty-eight employing from thirty-one to fifty teachers, and thirty-eight employing from fifty-one to two hundred teachers. There were sixteen private secondary schools.

¹ An abstract of a report submitted to the Subcommittee on In-service Education of Teachers. Mr. Weber is research assistant to the Subcommittee.

² C. A. Weber, "Basic assumptions for evaluation of techniques for educating teachers in service," *NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY*, XVII (July, 1942), 19-27.

Of the completed questionnaires, 75.3 percent were filled out by principals and 24.7 percent were filled out by teachers selected by the staff.

MOST PROMISING TECHNIQUES

The techniques reported here are those techniques which were considered most promising because they met the following requirements:

1. They were assigned an index of probable value greater than .80 by the principals and teachers who reported that they had been used in their schools. (The index of probable value ranges from zero to unity.)

2. A jury of 479 teachers in forty schools selected them as the most promising techniques for educating teachers in service.

3. They were considered most valuable when the criteria for evaluation were applied to them.¹

4. Correlations between their use and the obstacles to growth in service as listed by the reporting schools were lowest when these techniques were used.

5. Correlations between their use and "poor professional attitude" as an obstacle were lowest when these techniques were used.

6. Correlations between the amount of time of the staff devoted to the study of "How Children Learn," "Educational Research," "Educational Literature," "Experimentation in Education," "Curriculum Development," "Guidance," and "Social and Economic Problems" were highest when these techniques were used.

Promising Techniques for Improving Instruction

1. Visiting teachers in one's own school according to a plan devised by teachers themselves
2. Visiting teachers in other schools according to plans devised by the staff
3. Holding departmental meetings to study curriculum development
4. Experimenting with new classroom procedures according to plans devised by the staff
5. Making surveys of pupil problems, interests, and needs
6. Surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development
7. Holding departmental seminars open to all teachers to discuss departmental problems
8. Exchanging teachers with other schools

¹ *Ibid.*

9. Having pupils and parents, as well as teachers, serve on committees concerned with pupil activities and problems
10. Electing committees to conduct experiments within the school
11. Electing committees to evaluate practices, experiments, etc.
12. Having teachers participate in the selection of instructional material
13. Having teachers of one grade meet to discuss common problems
14. Having teachers visit homes of pupils
15. Having teachers devise criteria for the evaluation of teaching
16. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out a program of cooperative research in summer school
17. Organizing teachers to study recent educational research bearing on problems of the school
18. Setting up problems for study which require experimentation
19. Having teachers arrange exhibits of work done in their classes
20. Having two or more teachers cooperatively teach one class, working and planning together
21. Electing teachers to study tests and testing
22. Making careful study of maladjusted pupils
23. Providing an adequate professional library
24. Having teachers, through committees, develop a guidance bulletin
25. Surveying the vocational opportunities in the community
26. Providing time for teachers to interview pupils
27. Organizing the staff to study the socioeconomic background of every pupil
28. Electing committees to study particular phases of curriculum development
29. Organizing the entire staff into committees to study curriculum development
30. Organizing small group study meetings for study of the curriculum
31. Experimenting with a "core curriculum"
32. Devising (by teachers) an organized program of summer study for the purpose of making a cooperative attack upon specific school problems
33. Organizing a summer work-shop to study curriculum development
34. Including parents and pupils on curriculum committees
35. Electing committees to study recent theories of learning and to keep staff informed through oral and written reports
36. Electing committees to keep staff informed regarding current educational research

37. Electing committees to keep staff informed of current experiments in progress in classroom procedures, curriculum, etc.
38. Showing movies to illustrate newer methods of teaching

Promising Techniques for Improving Staff Relations

1. Having teachers preside at general meetings of the staff
2. Keeping accurate minutes of general staff meetings
3. Making minutes of staff meetings available to teachers
4. Electing committees to plan staff meetings
5. Holding staff meetings on school time by making provision for them in the program.
6. Serving light refreshments in connection with staff meetings
7. Extensive use of panel discussions
8. Having committees make reports on topics selected by the staff
9. Having open discussion following panel or committee discussions
10. Selecting staff members to talk to the group on specific topics
11. Organizing teachers into committees to study specific problems
12. Having teachers prepare and issue school handbooks for new teachers and new pupils
13. Providing for sabbatical leave to study, travel, or recover health
14. Providing cumulative sick leave for teachers
15. Providing periodic health examinations at school expense
16. Providing a cooperative medical, hospital, and health service for teachers
17. Having teachers cooperatively plan recreational and social activities for teachers
18. Having teachers develop a cooperative program for securing improved living conditions for teachers
19. Giving teachers a definite part in the selection of new staff members
20. Having teachers plan and execute procedures for the orientation of new teachers
21. Electing rather than having the principal appoint committees
22. Having teachers determine who is to appoint committees
23. Selecting committees, the selecting being done by teachers, to devise plans of action in connection with policy making
24. Having teachers select committees to gather facts needed for policy making or devising plans of action
25. Using committee reports for bases of plans of action of the staff
26. Holding a series of seminars a week before school opens to study plans for the year

27. Providing for teacher participation in planning new buildings
28. Having teachers prepare a standard supply list for use in purchasing supplies
29. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use of the staff in planning faculty meetings
30. Having teachers choose their own leaders for discussions
31. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator in planning the school budget
32. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator and board of education in developing a salary schedule
33. Having teachers cooperatively develop a statement of their own philosophy
34. Electing committees to suggest readings for teachers
35. Electing a principal's advisory committee
36. Holding joint meetings of boards of education and faculty
37. Electing committees to assist in planning the class schedule
38. Holding informal meetings of the staff
39. Having teachers select topics for special study
40. Having teachers devise a plan for basing salary increases on evidence of growth
41. Granting teachers short leaves with pay to attend conventions
42. Giving salary increments or bonuses for active participation in experimentation within the school
43. Giving salary increases or bonuses for extensive activity in study of local problems, curriculum revision, guidance, etc.
44. Giving salary increases for publication of magazine articles growing out of study of problems within the school
45. Providing a faculty browsing room and lounge

Promising Techniques for Improving Community Relations

1. Making time and place of general staff meetings known to parents, pupils, and the general public
2. Inviting parents, pupils, and the general public to attend staff meetings
3. Issuing press bulletins, mimeographed bulletins, etc., to inform the public of staff meetings
4. Holding panel discussions in which teachers, pupils and parents participate
5. Having pupils, parents, and the public participate in the discussion in faculty meetings
6. Sending questionnaires to parents, pupils, and teachers to secure ideas for suitable topics for discussion

7. Holding forums open to parents, teachers, and pupils
8. Having parents, teachers, and pupils give talks in general faculty meetings
9. Having pupils, parents, and teachers serve on committees concerned with pupil activities and problems
10. Having teachers prepare weekly bulletins for parents
11. Having teachers write daily or weekly press bulletins
12. Organizing a community coordinating council on which teachers elected by the staff serve
13. Including pupils, parents, and others on committees to study curriculum development
14. Having teachers develop a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents
15. Having teachers make a survey of community resources for curriculum development
16. Electing committees of teachers to work with parents, board members, and pupils in evaluation of the school
17. Including pupils and parents on planning committees in connection with extracurricular activities
18. Having teachers, pupils, and parents plan assembly programs
19. Releasing teachers from school duties to take part in programs of local organizations

LEAST PROMISING TECHNIQUES

For the purpose of comparison, the techniques of least promise are reported also. Twenty-five techniques of doubtful value are listed below. These techniques are reported to be of doubtful value for the following reasons:

1. The principals and teachers of the schools reporting assigned them indices of probable value of less than +.50.
2. The jury of 479 teachers in forty schools selected them as the least promising.
3. They were considered to be least valuable when the criteria for evaluation were applied to them.
4. Correlations between their use and obstacles reported, including "poor teacher attitude," were highest when these techniques were used frequently.
5. Correlations between staff time devoted to study of "How Children Learn," "Curriculum Development," and "Educational Research"

were lowest when these techniques were used frequently.

Techniques Considered Least Valuable

1. Having the principal preside over teachers' meetings
2. Having the principal plan faculty meetings
3. Holding staff meetings without adequate planning
4. Holding meetings after school when teachers are tired
5. Discussing routine matters
6. Holding faculty meetings at irregular intervals
7. Holding "reading circle" meetings
8. Demonstration teaching
9. Having principal do most of the talking
10. Domination by the principal in discussions
11. Visiting classes by principal or supervisor
12. Holding individual conferences by invitation of principal
13. Basing salary increases on summer study without concern for other evidence of growth
14. Basing salary schedules on earning advanced degrees without other evidence of growth
15. Basing salary schedules on years of service without regard to other evidence of growth
16. Giving teachers leaves without pay
17. Deducting from salaries for short absences due to illness
18. Appointing committees when electing could be the procedure to employ
19. Issuing circulars and bulletins to teachers
20. Creating curriculum committees by appointing only department heads to serve
21. Issuing bibliographies to teachers
22. Having the principal review current literature
23. Having the principal issue orders to teachers when teachers could work out their own procedures
24. Principal becomes overly concerned with technical rules and regulations regarding teachers
25. Making faculty meetings resemble college classroom situations

Cooperative techniques, that is, those techniques which involve active teacher participation in planning and policy making, have the greatest promise. Traditional, inspectorial, authoritarian techniques, which stem largely from administrative initiative, appear to have the least promise.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE

WHICH ARE RECOMMENDED FOR CONSIDERATION BY MEMBER SCHOOLS OF THE
NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

UNIT STUDIES IN AMERICAN PROBLEMS¹

Why Taxes? by Edward Krug

A true picture of taxation, discussing how tax money is raised, how it is spent, and whether these procedures are best.

Democracy and Its Competitors, by Earl S. Kalp and Robert M. Morgan

A concise, unbiased discussion of the present world situation and how it has come about. This pamphlet compares democracy with autocracy.

Civil Service, by Chester Carrothers

Up-to-date information on the fundamental facts of our civil service as it is today, its problems, and its progress.

Housing, by Archie W. Troelstrup

An up-to-date, realistic discussion of housing, which points out deficiencies and inadequacies of present methods and describes attempts to solve the problem.

Defense of the Western Hemisphere, by Earl S. Kalp and Robert M. Morgan

A concise treatment of the vital problem of today—Military Threats and Defense Plans; Economic Threats and Defense Measures; Enemies of Democracy within the Western Hemisphere; and Education and National Defense.

Government in Business, by Mary Pieters Keohane

The why, what and how of government operated enterprises.

¹ Prepared by the Committee on Experimental Units for student use in high school classes. These materials are available through Ginn and Company at 48 cents each.

In the Service with Uncle Sam, by Earl S. Kalp

The opportunities and demands in the armed forces are most timely problems of great interest to high school students.

Youth and Jobs, by Douglas S. Ward and Edith Selberg

Youth faces a critical job situation now and in the post-war period. No problem is more deserving of the attention of youth.

RECENT BOOKS

A Guide to Modern Biology, by Ella Phea Smith and Lynda M. Weber. Harcourt, Brace and Company, \$1.00

Prepared by the Committee on the Functional Organization of Secondary School Curricula, this workbook presents many vital activities in the health area for high school students.

General Education in the American High School, by Stephen M. Corey, Samuel Everett, Harold C. Hand, Robert J. Havighurst, Paul B. Jacobson, B. Lamar Johnson, Gordon N. Mackenzie, Daniel A. Prescott, Fritz Redl, Francis C. Rosecrance, Harold Spears, Ralph W. Tyler, Matthew H. Willing, George A. Works. Scott, Foresman and Company, \$2.25

The Committee on General Education prepared this volume for the use of faculty groups in the study and improvement of their school programs. Principles and practices which characterize reorganized programs are carefully presented.

THE ROLE OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION UNITS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM¹

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

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THE Unit Studies in American Problems sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units have been discussed several times at previous meetings of the North Central Association. Consequently these remarks will be restricted to comments on three aspects of the use of these materials in schools.

In the first place, it is obvious that the units sponsored by the Committee are particularly well adapted for use in courses on modern social problems. Under the impetus of the teacher-pupil planning movement, teachers of such courses are to an increasing extent giving students the responsibility of helping to choose the problems which are to be studied. Thus under joint auspices, after some preliminary discussion and investigation, a list of proposed problems for study is prepared. Normally some selection of topics is necessary, and some organization or order of treatment of those selected must be planned. Materials must be collected and sifted, and decisions must be made as to the sorts of activities in which individuals and the group are to engage.

The educational objectives and the theories of the learning process which underlie this procedure are fundamental. Under ordinary classroom conditions, however, it is often extremely difficult to make it effective. The available reference materials on modern social problems may be limited in quantity and in many cases are not written in language which high school students

can readily comprehend. Even when a basic text is available, it may not contain very much, if any, material on some topic which the pupils are eager to study. The Unit Studies in American Problems have been planned in such a way that they afford at least a partial solution of some of these difficulties. They are issued in separate units, and at a cost which is not prohibitive. They provide the class with a carefully prepared and reasonably comprehensive treatment of the problem. Moreover, they are written by high school teachers at a level appropriate for high school students. As a result of these features it is possible for every boy or girl in a class to read in common and to study intensively materials related to certain problems. This study should lead to a feeling on the students' part that they really understand some of the major issues related to a problem. In short, the plan under which these units have been prepared is consistent with modern practice in the teaching of social problems.

There is one point in this connection which may deserve special emphasis. If a school is in the process of adopting a social studies program which makes provision for study of modern social problems, the shift may be made gradually within the existing pattern of courses. By saving time at certain points of a course in American History, for example, provision might be made for study of the unit on *Democracy and Its Competitors*, or another, *Defense of the Western Hemisphere*. In this way the students might at least finish their

¹ Read before the Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

course with a vital problem of current interest which would ordinarily not be treated in the history course.

The second point I wish to make is concerned with methodology. It was not long ago that the program of the social studies consisted only of courses in history, civics, and sometimes economics. The pupils studied the textbooks, and classroom time was largely devoted to a paragraph by paragraph recitation of memorized statements. This situation has fortunately by now almost become an item in educational history. The point at the moment is that the Unit Studies in American Problems definitely do not lend themselves easily to such treatment. Rather, they become the basis or point of departure for varied learning experiences. Proper use of the text material should lead to the statement of numerous sub-problems or topics for further investigation. Numerous additional readings are suggested, and some illustrative "Projects and Problems for Discussion" are provided. For example, in *Defense of the Western Hemisphere* among the suggested questions for debate is, "RESOLVED, that strikes should be prohibited by law in defense industries." In view of the agitation over this question in Congress and elsewhere at this moment, perhaps no better illustration could be found of the timeliness of most of these materials. In certain circumstances a particular unit may be the principal source of material for the students, but in other circumstances it might only provide the background, the introduction, or the starting point of the study of the problem. Thus the existence of the material in this form frees both teacher and student from some of the required research, since some of this work has already been done by the authors. Time is thereby released for the planning of learning experiences of varied types.

The third point that I wish to emphasize has been discussed so often that I

am embarrassed to bring it up again. We have been told again and again that if democracy is to be preserved and perfected, our young people must be trained for the task. They must be helped to understand the problems and the issues which we face as a nation. They must learn methods of problem solving and methods of making effective in action the solutions that are discovered or proposed. It is doubtful that these objectives will be achieved if we give them ready-made solutions, or if we permit them to make their decisions without having a background of important related facts, or if we do not reduce their natural tendency to arrive at conclusions on the basis of prejudice and emotion.

The achievement of these objectives is a formidable task for the best of teachers whose talents and training are average or below average, and for those working under the average conditions as to load, facilities, and resources, the level of achievement that can be reached is inevitably less than is to be desired. In a situation such as this the existence of the materials under discussion, or others like them, is almost a *sine qua non* for success. Students must have materials to study. If they are to become desirable citizens of a democracy, they must at some time in their lives look some of our American problems squarely in the face. Pamphlets, newspapers, books, and many other sources are of course available, but only rarely do they give a comprehensive and coherent treatment of a particular problem. Under ideal conditions, the teacher and the pupils can of course weld together from scattered pieces a well-rounded treatment of a problem. Materials like those in the Unit Studies make this task much easier, however, and so are helping to fill one of the needs for an effective school problem in which the objectives related to democracy play a dominant role.

HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND LIBRARY SERVICE

A. W. CLEVINGER and Others¹

THIS study of high school libraries and library service was authorized by the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and planned by the Administrative Committee.

The library report form used by the Commission on Secondary Schools in collecting data was designed and the study based on the information collected was planned with a view to accomplishing the following purposes.

1. To focus the attention of local and state school authorities on high school libraries and library service with a view to bringing about continued improvement.

2. To secure information pertaining to school libraries and library service that show the conditions which now exist with respect to the libraries and library service in the high schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. No attempt has been made in this study to formulate standards of excellence that should be expected of accredited high schools or to present the views of those who have engaged in this study relative to what constitutes a good school library and effective library service.

3. To secure essential information pertaining to high school libraries and library service and to make this information available to the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools in form suitable for its use in developing reasonable and attainable standards of excellence for evaluating the library and library service of a high school.

4. To make available to local and state school authorities information pertaining to high school libraries and library service and

to publish this information in such form that the data secured from an individual high school or from the schools of a state can be compared with the data set forth in the various tables included in this study.

5. To secure information relative to school libraries and library service supplementing information secured from each high school through the annual report to the North Central Association of colleges and secondary schools.

In planning the library report blank and in organizing this study the Administrative Committee was given much valuable assistance by the School Library Service Committee of the Library Planning Board of the Illinois Library Association. (See list of members below.)

Statistical summaries of the library reports of the high schools were made in each of the twenty states of the North Central Association by the Chairman of the State Committee on Secondary Schools. These summaries were submitted by the State Chairmen to Arthur W. Clevenger, Chairman of the Illinois State Committee, who had been appointed by the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools to supervise this study and to make a report on High School Libraries and Library Service to the Commission on Secondary Schools during the Annual Meeting of the North Central Association.

In preparing this report on High School Libraries and Library Service the Chairman of the Illinois State Committee had the help and guidance of Miss MARIE M. HOSTETTER, University of Illinois Library School, and Director CARL MILTON WHITE, University of Illinois Library and Library School.

Members of the School Service Com-

¹ This report was prepared by A. W. Clevenger, High School Visitor, University of Illinois, in cooperation with the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools, Chairmen of the State Committees on Secondary Schools, Members of the Staff of the Library School of the University of Illinois, and the School Service Committee of the Library Planning Board of the Illinois Library Association.

mittee of the Library Planning Board of the Illinois Library Association:

ELEANOR R. LIBBEY, Librarian, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka. Chairman of the Committee.

WARD N. BLACK, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois.

ARTHUR W. CLEVINGER, High School Visitor, University of Illinois.

D. GENEVIEVE DIXON, Assistant Librarian, New Trier Township High School.

MARIE M. HOSTETTER, University of Illinois Library School.

EUGENE LAWLER, School of Education, Northwestern University.

ALICE M. LOHRER, Librarian, Hinsdale Township High School. (Now member of the Staff of the University of Illinois Library School)

AGNES LONG EDLIN, Field Visitor, School Libraries Extension Service, State Library, Springfield, Illinois.

DILLA W. MACBEAN, Librarian, Board of Education, Chicago.

ELEANOR WEIR WELCH, Librarian, Illinois State Normal University.

ITEM 1. *Number of States and High Schools Included in this Report.* Data were obtained from all of the twenty states that constitute the North Central

Association territory, and the distribution of single schools of various sizes was as follows:

Size of School	Number of Schools
1000 or more pupils	415
500 to 999 pupils	500
200 to 499 pupils	1134
Fewer than 200 pupils	829
TOTAL	2878

In making this study of high school libraries and library service, every effort has been made to eliminate errors. Individual items appearing in the high school report or in the statistical summary of the library reports of a state were excluded from the particular summary in this study to which they related if they could not be interpreted because of incomplete information or obvious errors.

ITEM 2. *The College Preparation and Teaching Experience of Heads of Libraries and of Full Time Assistants.* The information presented in Table I shows that a relatively large proportion of those serving either as library heads or as full-

TABLE I
COLLEGE DEGREES HELD BY HEADS OF LIBRARIES AND BY FULL TIME ASSISTANTS

HIGHEST COLLEGE DEGREE HELD	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES HOLDING DEGREE INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
A.B. or B.S.....	482	666	341	272	1761
M.A. or M.S.....	166	215	74	56	511
Ph.D. or Ed.D.....	4	0	1	0	5
Other degree.....	7	29	3	9	48
Reported as having no degree.....	19	30	23	19	91
Degree held not reported.....	43	62	12	18	135
Total.....	721	1002	454	374	2551
HIGHEST COLLEGE DEGREE HELD	NUMBER OF FULL TIME ASSISTANTS HAVING DEGREE INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
A.B. or B.S.....	19	27	18	143	207
M.A. or M.S.....	5	4	3	15	27
Other degree.....	0	0	1	3	4
Reported as having no degree.....	6	7	6	28	47
Degree held not reported.....	2	10	6	22	40
Total.....	32	48	34	211	325

time assistants possess a college degree and that many of those in charge of libraries hold the Master's degree. It will be observed, however, that the degree held was not reported in many cases and it should be noted that this particular item was excluded in many cases because of apparent errors in the report from indi-

proportion of the heads of libraries and of the full-time assistants have had as a major field of college preparation either some field other than English, social studies, foreign language, science, and mathematics, or that their major college preparation has been in a combination of fields.

TABLE II
MAJOR SUBJECT-MATTER FIELD OF COLLEGE PREPARATION OF HEADS OF
LIBRARIES AND OF FULL TIME ASSISTANTS

MAJOR FIELD OF COLLEGE PREPARATION	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES WITH MAJOR SUBJECT-MATTER FIELD OF COLLEGE PREPARATION AS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
English.....	327	451	180	172	1130
Social Studies.....	85	137	74	60	356
Foreign Language.....	64	104	49	45	262
Science.....	29	36	14	14	93
Mathematics.....	34	27	13	4	78
Other fields and combinations.....	160	189	120	70	539
Major field not reported.....	41	73	13	15	142
Total.....	740	1017	463	380	2600
MAJOR FIELD OF COLLEGE PREPARATION	NUMBER OF FULL TIME ASSISTANTS WITH MAJOR SUBJECT-MATTER FIELD OF COLLEGE PREPARATION AS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
English.....	7	8	8	73	96
Social Studies.....	4	4	9	32	49
Foreign Language.....	3	4	0	13	20
Science.....	1	0	1	8	10
Mathematics.....	1	0	1	0	2
Other fields and combinations.....	9	19	9	52	89
Major field not reported.....	6	12	6	35	59
Total.....	31	47	34	213	325

vidual schools or because it was omitted from the summary of an individual state. It probably can be assumed that in the case of a very large proportion of the individual high schools not including the information requested, the library was under the supervision of one who did not possess a college degree.

It is apparent from Table II that the librarian is most frequently an individual with English as the major field of college preparation. It is interesting to note, however, that a noticeably large

It will be observed from Table III that most of the heads of high school libraries have completed fifteen or more semester hours of education. This unquestionably can be accounted for by the fact that the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools requires fifteen or more semester hours of education of all teachers and that in most cases the person in charge of the high school library is teaching at least part time or has had experience as a teacher.

Table IV shows the number of heads of libraries with the number of years of teaching experience as indicated. It will be observed from this table that a very large proportion of the heads of high school libraries have had two or

of high school libraries and of full-time assistants holding the library degree is comparatively small and that the number of librarians and full-time assistants holding neither the library degree nor the library certificate is surpris-

TABLE III

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS OF EDUCATION	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES WITH THE AMOUNT OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION AS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Fewer than 15 hours.....	66	135	55	107	363
15 hours or more.....	648	853	409	319	2229
Number of hours not reported.....	48	72	14	18	152
Total.....	762	1060	478	444	2744

more years of teaching experience. The same is true for full-time assistants as indicated in the second part of this table.

ITEM 3. *The Professional Library Training and Experience of Heads of Libraries and of Full-Time Library Assistants.* The information contained in Table V shows that the number of heads

ingly large. It probably can be assumed that in the case of individual high schools failing to give the information requested, the head of the library or full-time assistant concerned did not possess either a library degree or a library certificate. In summarizing the information contained in the various state library summaries, it was interesting to

TABLE IV

THE TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES AND FULL-TIME ASSISTANTS BOTH IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS WHERE NOW EMPLOYED AND IN OTHER SCHOOLS

(The information given in the upper half of this table is for ALL high schools.)

NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN OTHER SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES WHO HAVE TAUGHT IN THE HIGH SCHOOL WHERE NOW EMPLOYED			
	0-1 Year	2-5 Years	6-10 Years	11 or More Years
0.....	473	265	108	185
1.....	109	52	21	32
2-5.....	220	221	75	152
6-10.....	127	119	72	117
11 or More.....	96	92	67	92
	NUMBER OF FULL-TIME LIBRARY ASSISTANTS WITH TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL WHERE NOW EMPLOYED			
0.....	97	15	10	4
1.....	9	2	1	0
2-5.....	26	14	5	6
6-10.....	9	7	3	1
11 or More.....	12	5	3	2

note that two states, Wisconsin and Indiana, accounted for a large proportion of the number of library certificates shown in this table.

a very large proportion of those reported as having fewer than eight semester hours of library science have had either no professional training or a single

TABLE V
HEADS OF LIBRARIES HAVING LIBRARY DEGREES OR LIBRARY CERTIFICATES

STATUS WITH REGARD TO DEGREE OR CERTIFICATE	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES OF SPECIFIED DEGREE OR CERTIFICATE STATUS				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Having Library Degree.....	51	138	151	183	523
Having Library Certificate.....	54	156	95	116	421
Neither degree nor certificate.....	500	597	214	88	1399
Information not given in report.....	118	120	37	29	304
Total.....	723	1011	497	416	2647
	NUMBER OF FULL TIME ASSISTANTS HAVING SPECIFIED STATUS				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Having Library Degree.....	5	8	5	75	93
Having Library Certificate.....	5	4	7	30	46
Neither degree nor certificate.....	22	18	25	56	121
Information not given in report.....	8	16	3	60	87
Total.....	40	46	40	221	347

The information contained in Table VI shows that a surprisingly large proportion of heads of libraries and of full-time assistants have had fewer than eight semester hours of professional library training. In connection with this report, the fact should be mentioned that

course consisting of two or three semester hours. The median number of semester hours of library science completed by heads of libraries for schools of each enrollment group should be carefully noted. Even in the case of head librarians in schools enrolling 1000 or more

TABLE VI
AMOUNT OF TRAINING IN LIBRARY SCIENCE FOR HEADS OF HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES

SEMESTER HOURS OF LIBRARY SCIENCE	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES HAVING THE NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS OF LIBRARY SCIENCE INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
0-7.....	446	457	106	51	1060
8-15.....	98	188	114	43	443
16-30.....	44	134	84	78	340
31 or more.....	16	71	48	112	247
Information not given in report.....	66	118	54	54	292
Total.....	670	968	406	338	2382
Median number of semester hours.....	4.7	6.5	12.9	25.2	6.9

pupils, the amount of professional training is less than that required by many library schools for the library degree or library certificate. It is clearly evident

libraries have had 31 or more semester hours of library science. In connection with the item on the amount of professional library training which has been

TABLE VII

AMOUNT OF TRAINING IN LIBRARY SCIENCE OF FULL-TIME LIBRARY ASSISTANTS

SEMESTER HOURS OF LIBRARY SCIENCE	NUMBER OF FULL-TIME ASSISTANTS HAVING THE NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS OF LIBRARY SCIENCE INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
0-7.....	24	27	14	55	120
8-15.....	3	8	4	15	30
16-30.....	1	0	6	22	29
31 or more.....	0	4	3	30	37
Information not given in report.....	8	7	11	65	91
Total.....	36	46	38	187	307

that the libraries in many high schools are under the direction and supervision of individuals who have had very little professional training for library service. It should be noted that in the present criterion adopted by the Commission on Secondary Schools for the evaluation of high school libraries a standard of excellence relating to the professional training of the person in charge of the library is set forth which is considerably higher than the median number of hours of professional training as indicated in this table for schools of each enrollment group. Attention is invited to the fact, however, that a total of 247 heads of

completed by heads of high school libraries, it should be noted that this table contains information on only 2,382 cases and that many high schools did not give the information requested. It probably can be assumed that most of the 292 heads of libraries for which the information was not given in the report and also the head librarians of high schools whose reports were not included in this particular study have had little or no professional library training.

It will be observed that a very large proportion of the library heads have had two or more years of library experience and that a noticeably large

TABLE VIII

THE LIBRARY EXPERIENCE OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL
WHERE NOW EMPLOYED AND IN OTHER SCHOOLS
(The information given in this table is for ALL high schools.)

NUMBER OF YEARS LIBRARY EXPERIENCE IN OTHER SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES WITH LIBRARY EXPERIENCE, IN THE HIGH SCHOOL WHERE NOW EMPLOYED, FOR			
	0-1 Year	2-5 Years	6-10 Years	11 or More Years
0.....	492	460	231	282
1.....	123	59	18	32
2-5.....	145	233	76	98
6-10.....	67	80	50	43
11 or more.....	33	31	15	18

number of these have secured this experience in the high school where now employed. It appears from this table that there is a tendency to employ as the head of the high school library a person who has had no previous library experi-

more than five years of library experience in other schools is comparatively small.

ITEM 4. *The Number and Classification of Library Staff Members and Helpers.* The information presented in Table

TABLE IX
THE LIBRARY EXPERIENCE OF FULL-TIME ASSISTANTS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL
WHERE NOW EMPLOYED AND IN OTHER SCHOOLS
(The information given in this table is for ALL high schools.)

NUMBER OF YEARS LIBRARY EXPERIENCE IN OTHER SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF FULL-TIME LIBRARY ASSISTANTS WITH LIBRARY EXPERIENCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL WHERE NOW EMPLOYED FOR			
	0-1 Year	2-5 Years	6-10 Years	11 or More Years
0.....	54	56	18	9
1.....	11	6	2	2
2-5.....	32	29	6	2
6-10.....	12	11	7	3
11 or more.....	7	6	2	2

ence. It also appears that when experienced librarians are employed those with from 2 to 5 years of experience in library work in other schools are most frequently employed. The proportion of library heads employed after having had

X shows the number of different types of persons engaged in library work and the various ways in which they are compensated for services rendered. It was to be expected that a study of this kind would reveal the employment of a large

TABLE X
THE NUMBER AND CLASSIFICATION OF LIBRARY STAFF MEMBERS AND HELPERS

CLASSIFICATION	NUMBER OF LIBRARY STAFF MEMBERS AND HELPERS IN EACH CLASSIFICATION RECEIVING:					
	Salary	Wages	School Credit	Tuition	No Pay	Total
<i>a. In High Schools Enrolling Fewer Than 200 Pupils:</i>						
High School Librarian (full-time).....	44	7	1	2	12	66
High School Librarian (part time).....	38	1	0	1	23	63
Teacher-Librarian (full-time).....	94	1	0	0	15	110
Teacher-Librarian (part-time).....	135	2	0	0	44	181
Teacher (full-time) (0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	112	0	0	0	33	145
Teacher (part-time) (0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	175	1	0	0	85	261
Person trained only in a public library..	11	5	0	0	8	24
Office clerk or secretary.....	30	7	1	4	3	45
W.P.A. clerk.....	22	23	0	0	24	69
High school pupil.....	31	29	710	36	1982	2788
N.Y.A. pupil.....	83	704	4	38	33	862
N.Y.A. project worker (not pupil).....	18	39	0	0	4	61
College students.....	0	14	0	0	0	14
Others.....	2	8	0	0	0	10
TOTAL.....	795	841	716	81	2266	4699

TABLE X (Continued)

CLASSIFICATION	NUMBER OF LIBRARY STAFF MEMBERS AND HELPERS IN EACH CLASSIFICATION RECEIVING:					
	Salary	Wages	School Credit	Tuition	No Pay	Total
<i>b. In High Schools Enrolling</i>						
<i>200-499 Pupils</i>						
High School Librarian (full-time).....	189	1	0	0	7	197
High School Librarian (part time).....	58	5	0	0	11	74
Teacher-Librarian (full-time).....	193	1	0	0	10	204
Teacher-Librarian (part-time).....	201	3	1	0	38	243
Teacher (full-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	126	6	0	0	19	151
Teacher (part-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	197	7	0	0	67	271
Person trained only in a public library..	40	4	0	0	4	48
Office clerk or secretary.....	33	9	0	1	3	46
W.P.A. clerk.....	32	65	0	5	3	105
High school pupil.....	80	65	1609	97	3264	5115
N.Y.A. pupil.....	94	1268	35	47	72	1516
N.Y.A. project worker (not pupil).....	15	57	1	0	10	83
College students.....	0	4	0	0	0	4
Others.....	1	2	0	0	1	4
TOTAL.....	1259	1497	1646	150	3509	8061

number of high school pupils, particularly N.Y.A. pupils, receiving wages for their services. It was somewhat surprising, however, to find a considerable number of pupils receiving compensation for

library services in the form of school credit or tuition. In most of the cases mentioned as receiving tuition for services rendered in connection with the library, the school reporting was a private

TABLE X (Continued)

CLASSIFICATION	NUMBER OF LIBRARY STAFF MEMBERS AND HELPERS IN EACH CLASSIFICATION RECEIVING:					
	Salary	Wages	School Credit	Tuition	No Pay	Total
<i>c. In High Schools Enrolling</i>						
<i>500-999 Pupils</i>						
High School Librarian (full-time).....	251	0	0	0	13	264
High School Librarian (part time).....	30	0	0	0	0	30
Teacher-Librarian (full-time).....	81	0	0	0	5	86
Teacher-Librarian (part-time).....	54	1	0	0	6	61
Teacher (full-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	19	1	0	0	4	24
Teacher (part-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	34	1	0	0	14	49
Person trained only in a public library..	20	5	0	0	1	26
Office clerk or secretary.....	7	16	1	0	2	26
W.P.A. clerk.....	12	26	25	10	168	181
High school pupil.....	42	74	1173	57	1999	3345
N.Y.A. pupil.....	46	687	23	62	2	820
N.Y.A. project worker (not pupil).....	7	16	0	0	0	23
College students.....	0	0	0	0	0	0
Others.....	0	0	0	3	0	3
TOTAL.....	603	827	1222	132	2154	4938

TABLE X (Continued)

CLASSIFICATION	NUMBER OF LIBRARY STAFF MEMBERS AND HELPERS IN EACH CLASSIFICATION RECEIVING:					
	Salary	Wages	School Credit	Tuition	No Pay	Total
<i>d. In High Schools Enrolling 1000 or More Pupils</i>						
High School Librarian (full-time).....	420	0	0	0	4	424
High School Librarian (part time).....	21	0	0	0	0	21
Teacher-Librarian (full-time).....	51	0	0	0	0	51
Teacher-Librarian (part-time).....	25	0	0	0	0	25
Teacher (full-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	8	0	0	0	0	8
Teacher (part-time)						
(0-7 sem. hrs. Library Science).....	16	0	0	0	17	33
Person trained only in a public library..	43	0	0	0	0	43
Office clerk or secretary.....	39	19	6	0	11	75
W.P.A. clerk.....	8	70	0	0	0	78
High school pupil.....	23	204	2431	8	3674	6340
N.Y.A. pupil.....	29	1133	9	19	0	1190
N.Y.A. project worker (not pupil).....	3	15	0	0	0	18
College students.....	49	1	0	0	0	50
Others.....	0	4	0	2	0	6
TOTAL.....	735	1446	2446	29	3706	8362

high school. The information contained in these tables indicates that many high school pupils render assistance in the library without compensation of any kind.

ITEM 5. *The Housing of High School Libraries.* It is apparent from Table XI that in approximately 50 percent of the high schools the library is housed in a room designed by an architect as a li-

brary. It should be noted, however, that the housing of the library in a study hall is of frequent occurrence in high schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils and that the library is seldom housed in a study hall in the larger schools. The housing of a school library in the principal's office or in a small room connected with the office accounts for a large proportion of the 304 cases re-

TABLE XI
KIND OF HOUSING PROVIDED FOR THE LIBRARY IN HIGH SCHOOLS
IN THE GROUPS OF VARIOUS SIZES

KIND OF HOUSING	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES REPORTED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
In room designed by architect.....	344	485	306	316	1451
In study hall(s).....	302	369	79	25	775
On stage of assembly hall.....	14	13	1	4	32
Distributed among several classrooms..	44	48	11	6	109
Housed in other locations.....	76	154	53	21	304
In typical classroom.....	35	22	9	3	69
Housed in combinations of first four items, above.....	20	16	2	0	38
Total.....	835	1107	461	375	2778

ported under “e, Housed in Other Locations.”

ITEM 6. *The Proportion of School Enrollment Accommodated at One Time in the Library.* It is apparent from the information presented in Table XII that there is a wide range among the high schools of each enrollment group with respect to the percentage of pupils ac-

of equipment, and physical features usually recommended as necessary or desirable for the high school library. With the exception of a few items, it is apparent that a large proportion of the high schools accredited by the North Central Association now have the facilities, equipment, and features mentioned. It is interesting to note, however, that

TABLE XII
NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES ACCOMMODATING VARIOUS PERCENTAGE OF THE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AT ONE TIME

PERCENTAGE ACCOMMODATED AT ONE TIME	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES				
	In High Schools With				Total †
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Less than 5.....	47	80	49	144	320
5- 9.....	75	181	173	162	591
10-14.....	97	184	107	34	422
15-19.....	68	98	50	11	227
20-24.....	56	80	22	4	162
25-29.....	49	79	14	5	147
30 or more.....	331	251	22	2	606
Total.....	723	953	437	362	2475
Median percentage of school enroll- ment accommodated at one time....	26.9	16.6	9.9	6.1	13.9

commodated in the library at one time. It is clearly evident that the percentage of pupils accommodated in the library at one time varies inversely with the number of pupils enrolled in the school. It frequently has been recommended that the library should provide seating accommodations for 10 percent of the pupils enrolled in the high school. It is apparent that this recommendation was not based on any careful study of the relationship of the number of pupils using the library at any one time to the number of pupils enrolled in the high school.

ITEM 7. *The Facilities and Equipment of High School Libraries.* In collecting the information on which Table XIII is based, each high school was presented with a list of the facilities, items

a relatively small proportion of the high schools included in this report have such facilities or equipment as conference rooms, library classrooms, and cabinets for films, slides, and phonograph records. It is apparent that in most high schools the library is equipped with reading tables and chairs rather than with desks or tablet arm chairs.

ITEM 8. *Library Income and Expenditures.* Information contained in library reports was not consolidated as the data on library income and expenditures were secured for the information of the state committees.

ITEM 9. *Annual Salaries of Heads of Libraries and Full-time Library Assistants.* For the purpose of comparing the salaries of high school librarians with salaries of teachers, there have been in-

cluded in Table XIV the salaries for women teachers employed in high schools accredited by the North Central Association for the school year 1941-42. It will be observed that the salaries of the papers per pupil enrolled in the high school. The amount spent per pupil for books, magazines, and newspapers for any individual high school during one year unquestionably depends to a great

TABLE XIII
NUMBER OF LIBRARIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE VARIOUS ENROLLMENT GROUPS HAVING THE FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT INDICATED

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES				Total
	In High Schools With				
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Conference Room(s).....	63	131	102	108	404
Work Room(s).....	200	378	242	290	1110
Water and Electric Outlets.....	150	263	186	252	851
Library Classroom(s).....	45	109	46	46	246
Cabinets for Card Catalogs.....	752	1044	473	406	2675
Magazine Rack(s).....	744	1024	455	387	2610
Newspaper Rack(s).....	461	645	325	221	1652
Dictionary Stand(s).....	721	991	438	377	2527
Supply Cupboard(s).....	549	787	394	356	2086
Typewriter(s).....	389	576	371	363	1699
Adequate Bulletin Boards.....	598	874	401	357	2230
Filing Cabinets for Clippings, Pictures, Cabinets for Films, Slides, Phono- graph Records.....	329	626	385	377	1717
Charging Desk(s).....	100	147	56	59	362
Adequate Lighting.....	683	987	448	380	2498
Attractive Library Atmosphere.....	751	1013	434	356	2554
Chairs and Reading Tables.....	592	847	398	374	2211
Desks or Tablet-arm Chairs.....	580	831	396	351	2158
Charging Trays.....	177	213	44	29	463
	601	895	441	375	2312

librarians are far below the salaries of women teachers in each group enrollment.

ITEM 10. *The Per Pupil Expense for Library Purposes.* The information presented in Table XV shows that there exists a wide variation in the amounts spent for books, magazines, and news-

extent on the adequacy of the library and the effectiveness of its use. The median amount spent per pupil for books, magazines, and newspapers as reported in this table varies inversely with the number of pupils enrolled in the high school.

TABLE XIV
SALARIES OF LIBRARY HEADS AND OF ASSISTANTS

SALARY	NUMBER OF HEADS OF LIBRARIES RECEIVING SALARY INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
*Less than \$500.....	75	98	18	1	192
\$ 500-\$ 749.....	16	79	17	5	117
\$ 750-\$ 999.....	59	96	36	10	201
\$1000-\$1249.....	49	155	87	21	312
\$1250-\$1499.....	36	187	139	58	420
\$1500-\$1749.....	21	74	78	66	239
\$1750-\$1999.....	9	39	49	88	185
\$2000-\$2249.....	1	13	17	51	82
\$2250-\$2499.....	4	7	2	30	43
\$2500 or over.....	2	2	8	62	74
Totals.....	272	750	451	392	1865
Median Salary.....	\$769	\$1163	\$1371	\$1849	\$1310
Median Salary of Women Teachers in NCA Schools.....	\$1194	\$1307	\$1502	\$2328	\$1650
Number of Teachers Included Above..	2575	7244	6509	14658	30986

SALARY	NUMBER OF FULL-TIME ASSISTANTS RECEIVING SALARY INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
*Less than \$500.....	9	16	1	15	41
\$ 500-\$ 749.....	1	11	6	13	31
\$ 750-\$ 999.....	2	10	2	58	72
\$1000-\$1249.....	2	6	8	33	49
\$1250-\$1499.....	3	2	5	22	32
\$1500-\$1749.....	2	2	5	35	44
\$1750-\$1999.....	1	1	1	30	33
\$2000-\$2249.....	0	0	0	4	4
\$2250-\$2499.....	0	0	0	4	4
\$2500 or over.....	0	0	0	11	11
Totals.....	20	48	28	225	321
Median Salary.....	\$750	\$932	\$1156	\$1201	\$1084

* Note: Staff members of private high schools serving without pay accounted for a large proportion of the head librarians reported as receiving less than \$500.

TABLE XV
AMOUNT SPENT FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY (1940-41) PER PUPIL ENROLLED
FOR BOOKS, MAGAZINES, AND NEWSPAPERS

AMOUNT SPENT PER PUPIL	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Less than \$.25.....	2	12	11	33	58
.25- .49.....	17	67	60	86	230
.50- .74.....	50	144	133	106	433
.75- .99.....	84	228	117	63	492
1.00-1.24.....	148	214	67	25	454
1.25-1.49.....	84	113	25	10	232
1.50-1.74.....	79	73	13	3	168
1.75-1.99.....	63	44	6	4	117
2.00-2.99.....	125	88	13	7	233
3.00-3.99.....	53	23	3	1	80
4.00-4.99.....	19	9	4	1	33
5.00 or more.....	42	14	2	2	60
Total.....	766	1029	454	341	2590
Median Amount Spent.....	\$1.49	\$1.07	\$.80	\$.62	\$1.05

ITEM 11. *Classification Systems and Records.*

TABLE XVI
SYSTEMS AND RECORDS USED IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF BOOKS

RECORDS AND CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES HAVING CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS OR KINDS OF RECORDS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Dewey Decimal System.....	754	1032	451	369	2609
Other Classification Systems.....	34	33	18	8	93
Shelf Lists.....	492	796	399	359	2046
Accession Records.....	667	931	411	312	2321
Alphabetically Arranged Card Catalogs. Use of Wilson Standard Catalog in Lieu of Card Catalog.....	715	948	423	363	2449
Complete Annual Inventory.....	102	190	53	47	392
	625	769	383	325	2102

ITEM 12. *Time of Ordering Library Books and Magazines.*TABLE XVII
TIME OF ORDERING LIBRARY BOOKS AND MAGAZINES

TIME OF ORDERING	NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS ORDERING BOOKS AND MAGAZINES AS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
As Needed.....	292	349	120	109	870
Each Month.....	7	24	18	13	62
Each Semester.....	45	50	40	28	163
Annually.....	348	483	215	210	1256
Some Combination of Above.....	140	224	92	45	501

ITEM 13. *The Method of Selecting Library Books.*TABLE XVIII
THE METHOD OF SELECTING LIBRARY BOOKS

CHIEFLY SELECTED BY:	NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN WHICH LIBRARY BOOKS ARE CHIEFLY SELECTED BY THE INDIVIDUALS, GROUPS OR METHODS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Librarian.....	109	217	146	134	606
Principal.....	39	34	10	10	93
Superintendent.....	88	86	31	6	211
Board of Education.....	13	3	0	1	17
Committee of Teachers.....	116	128	25	16	285
Subject Matter Departments.....	99	120	41	37	297
Pupils.....	7	17	6	3	33
General Committee on Book Selection.....	24	20	4	13	61
Other Methods.....	40	79	31	37	187
Some Combination of Above.....	412	614	255	222	1503

ITEM 14. *Charging Systems Used in High School Libraries.*TABLE XIX
CHARGING SYSTEMS USED IN HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES

CHARGING SYSTEMS	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES USING THE CHARGING SYSTEMS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Individual Book Cards.....	588	783	331	257	1959
Borrower's Cards.....	203	293	117	84	697
Newark System.....	30	48	32	23	133
Detroit System.....	11	16	9	14	50
Other Systems.....	36	43	21	66	166

ITEM 15. *Ways of Extending or Increasing the Effectiveness of Library Service.*TABLE XX
WAYS OF INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LIBRARY SERVICE

WAYS OF EXTENDING OR INCREASING LIBRARY SERVICE	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS USING WAYS OF EXTENDING OR INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE LIBRARY SERVICE AS INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Cooperative Use of Public Library Service.....	407	577	293	234	1511
Use of Library Extension by College or University.....	120	169	80	48	417
Use of State Library Extension.....	177	223	84	45	529
Use of Bookmobile.....	15	20	7	2	44
Use of Library Extension by County Library.....	68	98	25	10	201
Use of Organized Plan for Circulating Books to Classrooms.....	186	404	222	202	1014
County High School System Circulating Library.....	16	11	4	7	38

ITEM 16. *Ways of Using Libraries.*TABLE XXI
WAYS OF USING LIBRARIES

WAYS OF USING LIBRARIES	NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS WITH WAY OF USING LIBRARY INDICATED				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
Admitting Pupils by Signed Permits...	188	404	261	269	1122
Assigning Pupils to the Library.....	130	321	172	106	729
Permitting Pupils Free Access to Shelves.....	569	791	394	336	2090
Permitting Pupils to Use Only Library Books or Materials while in Library.....	257	293	129	162	841
Permitting Pupils to Study Own Textbooks While in Library.....	397	667	308	209	1581

ITEM 17. *The Professional Status and Working Relationships of the High School Librarian.* From the information contained in this report the high school librarian is quite likely to attend fac-

this table of information indicates the following practices: (1) little or no cooperation, (2) cooperation by approximately half of the teachers, or (3) cooperation by 100 percent of the teachers.

TABLE XXII
THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS AND WORKING RELATIONSHIPS OF
THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

STATUS OR WORKING RELATIONSHIP	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH THE LIBRARIAN HAS THE STATUS AND/OR WORKING RELATIONSHIP INDICATED IN COLUMN AT LEFT				
	In High Schools With				Total
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
a. Never attends or participates in faculty meetings.....	48	74	15	16	153
Occasionally attends meetings of the faculty.....	47	85	33	40	205
Regularly attends meetings of the faculty.....	612	872	405	317	2206
b. Holds individual conferences with teachers.....	432	724	380	299	1835
Holds group conferences with teachers.....	107	157	78	65	407
Does not hold any conferences with teachers.....	143	138	27	14	322
c. Is directly responsible to high school principal.....	358	512	321	304	1495
Is directly responsible to superintendent of schools.....	360	508	126	46	1040
Is directly responsible to a public librarian.....	5	23	19	32	79
Is directly responsible to some person other than those above mentioned.....	4	9	5	6	24
d. Has same status as teacher in high school.....	619	875	396	276	2166
Does not have same status as teacher in the high school.....	86	126	44	84	340

ulty meetings regularly. She more frequently holds conferences with individual teachers rather than with groups. The librarian is seldom directly responsible to any authority other than the principal or superintendent of schools and is most frequently responsible to the high school principal. She usually has the same professional status as the high school teachers.

With respect to the extent of cooperation of the teachers through the regular filing of lists of books with the librarian

By comparing the medians it will be observed that the smaller the high school, the greater the extent of cooperation of the type reported in this table.

ITEM 18. *General Encyclopedias Most Frequently Found in High School Libraries.* It appears from the information presented in this table that the high school pupils throughout the twenty states included in the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have access to approximately the same general refer-

TABLE XXIII

THE EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS COOPERATE WITH THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIAN BY
REGULARLY FILING WITH THE LIBRARIAN LISTS OF BOOKS
TO BE USED IN THEIR CLASSES

ESTIMATED PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS COOPERATING	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES				Total
	In High Schools With				
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils	200-499 Pupils	500-999 Pupils	1000 or More Pupils	
0-9.....	102	122	95	54	373
10-19.....	27	66	36	43	172
20-29.....	25	72	42	37	176
30-39.....	10	31	20	13	74
40-49.....	5	18	15	8	46
50-59.....	88	128	62	63	341
60-69.....	17	30	15	9	71
70-79.....	38	66	33	34	171
80-89.....	18	37	15	13	83
90-99.....	25	51	22	17	115
100.....	252	268	75	28	623
Total schools.....	607	889	430	319	2245
Median estimated percent cooperating	78	64	51	51	58

TABLE XXIV

GENERAL ENCYCLOPEDIAS REPORTED BY THE TWENTY STATE CHAIRMEN IN THE LISTS OF THE
EIGHT ENCYCLOPEDIAS MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED IN THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY REPORTS

NAME OF ENCYCLOPEDIA	NUMBER OF STATE CHAIRMEN REPORTING THE ENCYCLOPEDIA INDICATED IN THE LISTS OF THE EIGHT ENCYCLOPEDIAS MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED IN THE LIBRARY REPORTS				
	Group I All Schools	Group II Fewer than 200 Pupils	Group III 200-499 Pupils	Group IV 500-999 Pupils	Group V 1000 or More
Britannica.....	20	20	20	20	20
Compton.....	20	20	19	19	19
New International.....	20	18	19	20	19
World Book.....	20	20	20	20	20
Americana.....	19	20	20	20	19
Book of Knowledge.....	13	11	11	12	6
New Standard.....	10	7	11	6	1
Nelson Loose-Leaf.....	6	4	3	4	4
Britannica Junior.....	5	4	6	4	5
Lincoln.....	5	3	4	10	10
Catholic Encyclopedia.....	3	7	3	2	0

Note. Encyclopedias mentioned by the state chairmen as being in the lists for Group I schools an equal number of times are listed in this table in alphabetical order. The encyclopedias are listed alphabetically in the order of frequency in which they were mentioned in the twenty lists for Group I (all high schools).

ence encyclopedias. The "Catholic Encyclopedia" was almost always mentioned in the library reports from Catholic high schools. It was included in the state summary reports of Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

ITEM 19. *The Amount Spent per High School during the School Year 1940-41 for Books* (exclusive of government, state, and university bulletins, and textbook sets). The wide variation in the amounts spent for books under the various library classifications would seem

to indicate that teachers in certain fields such as English and the social studies are making more extensive use of the high school library than are the teachers in some of the other fields. The comparatively large amounts spent per school for books under such classifications as fiction, history and travel, and biography also probably reflect a demand for such books and may be an indication that the high schools are needlessly duplicating books which should be available in a public library.

TABLE XXV
THE AMOUNT SPENT PER SCHOOL FOR BOOKS UNDER EACH LIBRARY CLASSIFICATION AND THE NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS ON WHICH EACH AMOUNT WAS BASED

LIBRARY CLASSIFICATION	SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOL							
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils		200-499 Pupils		500-999 Pupils		1000 or More Pupils	
	Number of Schools	Amount Spent Per School	Number of Schools	Amount Spent Per School	Number of Schools	Amount Spent Per School	Number of Schools	Amount Spent Per School
General Reference....	459	\$ 61.40	668	\$ 76.69	306	\$ 74.97	247	\$ 163.09
Philosophy.....	297	3.87	404	5.14	230	7.33	232	14.31
Religion.....	299	6.77	379	7.48	214	7.68	202	5.12
Social Science (except history)....	445	21.54	631	36.96	299	54.01	249	166.77
Philology.....	274	4.10	420	3.90	197	6.43	211	11.62
Natural Science.....	403	16.83	576	24.93	282	35.30	240	74.66
Useful Arts.....	446	26.93	617	42.75	298	52.47	245	100.18
Fine Arts.....	367	10.82	573	17.11	283	25.43	246	58.02
Literature.....	415	23.97	597	33.00	293	45.13	246	85.29
History and Travel...	415	22.20	631	32.80	306	46.80	253	122.47
Biography.....	398	14.02	614	22.95	298	35.84	221	87.30
Fiction.....	468	46.81	626	93.03	314	106.64	255	209.27
Total Amount Spent per School.....		\$259.26		\$396.74		\$498.03		\$1038.10

ITEM 20. *The Number of Books Added to the Library per High School during the School Year 1940-41* (exclu-

sive of government, state, and university bulletins, and textbook sets).

TABLE XXVI

THE NUMBER OF BOOKS ADDED TO THE LIBRARY DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR 1940-41 UNDER EACH LIBRARY CLASSIFICATION PER HIGH SCHOOL

LIBRARY CLASSIFICATION	SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOL							
	Fewer Than 200 Pupils		200-499 Pupils		500-999 Pupils		1000 or More Pupils	
	Number of Schools Report- ing	Number of Books Added Per School	Number of Schools Report- ing	Number of Books Added Per School	Number of Schools Report- ing	Number of Books Added Per School	Number of Schools Report- ing	Number of Books Added Per School
<i>General Reference</i>								
Dictionaries.....	451	3.1	634	5.0	250	7.5	237	8.8
Encyclopedias.....		(Number	of ency	clopedias	excluded	from t	his study)	
Other Reference....	457	5.5	671	7.6	319	8.4	279	16.1
<i>Philosophy</i>	364	2.7	564	4.9	302	5.6	285	10.6
<i>Religion</i>	365	5.7	520	6.2	266	5.0	247	3.7
<i>Social Science</i> (Excluding history)								
Sociology.....	425	3.3	548	6.5	296	8.1	272	13.1
Economics.....	414	3.3	615	5.1	306	7.9	271	14.2
Political Science and Government..	446	4.4	641	7.2	324	8.6	275	10.6
Education.....	446	5.8	633	8.1	307	10.6	265	14.8
Others.....	375	4.0	607	7.0	313	9.5	278	23.5
<i>Philology</i>								
Language.....	338	3.1	516	4.3	271	4.9	249	14.6
<i>Natural Science</i>								
Mathematics.....	340	2.0	501	2.8	244	4.0	229	5.0
Physics.....	338	1.5	512	2.5	255	3.4	246	5.2
Chemistry.....	357	1.9	556	3.2	230	3.2	247	6.0
Biology.....	425	4.5	636	5.2	305	7.2	259	14.6
Others.....	383	4.1	600	6.2	299	7.6	279	14.6
<i>Useful Arts</i>								
Engineering.....	302	1.4	516	3.3	272	5.6	267	17.0
Agriculture.....	396	7.2	577	8.9	252	7.8	234	5.7
Home Economics...	496	7.6	725	10.5	339	11.9	263	14.2
Business.....	358	2.6	547	3.8	277	5.8	255	8.7
Others.....	386	3.8	633	8.5	309	11.5	280	24.5
<i>Fine Arts</i>								
Music.....	389	3.9	584	4.1	296	5.6	265	8.2
Art.....	355	1.8	568	2.9	286	7.2	269	10.7
Others.....	338	2.9	585	5.2	301	9.1	286	17.5
<i>Literature</i>								
English and								
American.....	530	13.8	744	20.7	353	52.4	299	53.7
German.....	255	1.0	354	0.8	156	3.1	153	0.9
French.....	282	1.8	373	3.1	166	2.9	183	2.9
Spanish.....	266	0.4	370	1.1	150	1.1	158	1.9
Latin.....	274	0.8	388	1.0	159	3.1	162	1.3
Others.....	309	3.3	444	5.7	197	8.2	208	14.4
<i>History and Travel</i> ...	537	13.3	720	21.4	382	29.7	303	73.9
<i>Biography</i>	503	9.6	680	14.7	362	22.3	302	42.4
<i>Fiction</i>	603	38.0	726	75.7	375	98.1	302	173.7
Total.....		168.1		273.2		386.9		647.0

Note. This table includes data from 17 states: Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa (excepting History and Travel, Biography, Fiction), Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia and Wyoming.

The data presented in this report indicate that there is a wide variation among the high schools of each enrollment group with respect to standards of excellence relating to the high school library and library service. From such information it is possible to secure a fairly clear conception of the libraries and library service in the high schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The various tables have been arranged in such form as to make it possible to compare the individual high school with the large group of high schools included in this study with respect to the library and library service.

Standards of excellence relating to high school libraries and library service can be devised without having data such as those presented in this study, but it is useless to develop such standards either on levels far below those that already exist or so high that they cannot be reached or maintained by a large proportion of the high schools concerned. Actual knowledge of the existing situation with respect to libraries and library services is essential to the intelligent development of standards of excellence and the establishment of goals if such are to constitute a challenge and are to be attainable. A major purpose of this study has been to provide such information.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED

Social Norms and the Behavior of College Students, by Edward J. Todd. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. vii + 190.

Social Norms and the Behavior of College Students is another of the "must" books. It is "must" because it lies in that series of sound critiques based on research and, while devastating and sometimes depressing in their cool, clear, factual findings, nevertheless gives us the best possible basis for reform. It should be included on any shelf with the *New York Regents' Studies*, those of the American Youth Commission, the at-present issuing volumes on the General College at Minnesota, and others. Finally, it is "must" because Dr. Todd has gone deep behind the superficial aspects of curriculum, credits, grading systems, teaching methods directly to students, themselves, more than 2,000 of them. He has, moreover, gone into that most basic aspect of all education, the worlds of values in which students live; values which control their personal and group behavior and which, therefore, have the profoundest meaning for themselves and society.

By unquestionable methods of study and analysis, Dr. Todd brings forth in mild, cool terms what is, in many ways, the as yet most smashing condemnation of our educational system and its results. Quite bluntly, he finds that, in general, the majority of our college students and non-college people in the samples studied put the dollar as of highest value to man and worship the economic "big-shot" as the American ideal. Second in the scheme of values and closely associated with the economic is the political. Next to desire for money in the minds of American youth so sampled is political power in the sense of prestige and control over people. This close association obviously is a consequence of the relationship between such power of control and money getting. Third in rank of value in the scale of standards against which college youth matches itself is the scientific world of fact-finding and truth-searching. This might lead to some optimism were it not clear that this, too, is largely associated with money-getting since American business and industry has found the laboratory useful in producing machines and gadgets to make profits.

Far below these three prime value worlds

in the minds of American youth lies the social ring including democracy and its management, labor problems, consumer needs, rural life and agriculture, the human family, the church, the school, and recreation. Below these social cultural values lies religion. And, at the bottom of the ladder, art or esthetic values.

The portrait of American youth's educational mind is not a pleasant one. What to do about it? Dr. Todd gives many sound recommendations in a final chapter on implications of his study. It is a "must" book!

MALCOLM S. MACLEAN
Hampton Institute

Some Social Aspects of Residence Halls for College Women, by Helen Quien Stewart. New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1942. Pp. ix + 188.

More and more we are coming to look upon education as an all-out process by which the attempt should be made to develop the student in all aspects of life and living to the end that he may come into mature life as a self-reliant and self-sustaining member of society. The development of academic interests, native capacities, mental and mechanical aptitudes are paralleled therefore by the development of character, personality traits, social standards, and environmental appreciations, all to the end that maturity may express itself through a broad viewpoint and personal responsibility.

The author has presented in an interesting manner both the theoretical and practical ways in which residence halls for college women make a definite contribution to the development of the social aspects of a student's education. Since a college student spends at least one-third of his time in a residence hall, it is in every sense his home during his college years and like the home environment, therefore, it exerts a strong influence in determining values and patterns of relationships. Heads of halls need to be trained women with a vision of and for an integrated campus program. A great part of successful social education lies in providing as natural a setting as possible, a setting containing many normal relationships and situations which are to be found in family and group living.

The author has been very successful in bringing together the aims and philosophies of a wide variety of colleges and universities with regard to the housing of women students. Inasmuch as there is available only a very limited body of literature relating to tangible aspects of dormitory life, this collection of material has real value for those concerned with the problems of housing.

There are almost as many different plans for carrying out the objectives of residence halls as there are institutions reporting. However, the differences in plans are merely like the differences which one finds among individuals, all of whom are striving consistently for the same high levels of standards and objectives. The trend is for heads of halls to have duties beyond their occupation within the halls, hence training in subject matter content and personnel techniques is coming to be required. If life in the residence halls is a part of the all-out effort at total education, the heads of halls and their staffs are as significant in the plan as are the officers of instruction.

The book contains many valuable suggestions for the alert, forward-looking dean of women or counselor who is interested in integrating the academic and social aspects of college life. It is a worthy contribution to the literature on residence halls, especially on the philosophy of life in residence halls.

IRMA E. VOIGT
Ohio University

Man's Way—A First Book in Philosophy, by Henry Van Zandt Cobb. New York: Longmans Green and Co., 1942. Pp. xv + 395.

This volume is offered as an introductory text in Philosophy, and has grown out of the teaching of Professor Cobb in Carleton College. It differs, however, from most books of that type, both by way of omission and by way of commission. Plato and Aristotle are indeed touched slightly, but not at all Leibniz or Spinoza, Berkeley or Hume, or Kant and his followers. Likewise the problems of epistemology and metaphysics are not treated in their isolation. By way of commission, however, a most vigorous effort is maintained to show how the issues of philosophy spring from the puzzles and frustrations of life and of society, and are intimately tied in with familiar experience and practical necessities.

"The book does not attempt to provide a blueprint nor to give a broad survey of the

perennial problems of philosophy; nor does it present a new system of speculative thought." So says the author's preface. The reviewer judges, however, that it comes closer to the second alternative. That is, the volume is penetrated by a certain temper of critical interpretation, which it is inculcating. The temper in question is so richly humanitarian that we would do ill to pin a hackneyed label upon the volume. But it seems to be most influenced by romanticism in a form nearly allied to pragmatism, especially in the right-wing editing of that multiform tendency. On occasion, the author offers, indeed, a trenchant and effective criticism both of the pragmatist conception of truth, and also of chaotic and disintegrating tendencies in romanticism. But it is as if the teachings of James and Dewey had been absorbed, mellowed and made urbane, and then brought into connection with a certain largeness of view which is absorbed from other tendencies. To be sure, only one mention is made of each of these distinguished names; but the influence of their criticism of life is all pervasive. And yet, the matter is so handled that a teacher conscious of the limitations of pragmatist theory can operate happily with the book.

The advantages of this volume gather round its manifold suggestions of the way in which the practical problems of life and society motivate and require the development of a competent philosophy of culture. This is reinforced also by a study of the history of science, and most notably of the recent formulations of the logic of science. With regard to logic, pragmatist tendencies are reread in the light of the newer formalism, and a large survey of these problems is afforded. Of special interest to the reviewer, however, has been the author's treatment of the problems of history, of the epistemological significance of the historian's task, and of its relation to objectivity; and then also of the objective basis of political and social reform. The book seems to be sympathetic with religion; but, except for a few brief sentences, no study is made of the significance of that phase of life.

The disadvantage resulting from the failure to survey the problems and schools of philosophy seems to the reviewer so marked that he would expect to use this book only in connection with wide supplementary reading. Otherwise, he would doubt also whether the student's right to find his own position has received sufficient deference.

E. L. HINMAN
University of Nebraska

Health In Schools. Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: National Education Association, 1942. Pp. 544.

"A sound mind in a sound body" has been an interest of some educators for centuries, yet it is only in recent years that this interest has been translated into understandable and reasonable programs and activities for our schools. It has taken two world wars and their intervening crises to emphasize the importance of health in the schools and to arouse schoolmen to a concerted attack upon the problems involved.

Health In Schools is a significant document for more reasons than one. It is written by administrators for administrators. It places the responsibility for health education in the schools squarely on the shoulders of administrators where it belongs. It recognizes the cooperative nature of the process involved in carrying out good health procedures and the limitations as well as the contributions of the school and other community agencies. It provides basic information for the development of school health policies in such areas as the prevention and control of communicable diseases, care of injuries and emergency illness of children in school, the creation of a healthful school environment, the health of school personnel, and health examinations and guidance for pupils. It states essentials in the organization and administration of the health program in the school, outlines the general program, and suggests functions, responsibilities, and qualifications of various personnel working in the school. It defines health instruction and gives suggestions and illustrative materials helpful to teachers in improving

their programs. It analyses the health aspect of physical education and recreation, pointing out the relationship of these two areas to health education. It discusses mental hygiene and school programs for physically exceptional children and their relationships to health education. It summarizes literature pertaining to the legislative and legal aspects of the school health program and it presents excellent lists of references, methods of appraisal resources, and materials for school health education. A broad and comprehensive point of view for health education permeates the book.

"Although the yearbook points no moral or draws no conclusions (labeled as such), several lines of possible action appear from a reading of the chapters: (a) that more careful attention to a study of individual nature and health needs is needed; (b) that more effective machinery should be developed to eliminate physical and mental defects; (c) that the school program and its organization must be studied to eliminate the unnecessary tensions and strains harmful to both pupil and teacher health; and (d) that the possibilities of cooperative action in creating a healthful community should be explored under the leadership of educators. These are not the only roads to immediate action, but they suggest some of the types of activities that will concern school administrators." (P. 6)

Any administrator wishing to improve health in his schools should find this reference practical and helpful. It reflects the best thinking in the field of health education and defines this thinking in terms of reasonable and understandable activities that any capable administrator, with the aid of his staff, can translate into action. It is an excellent and timely reference worthy of wide use.

MABEL E. RUGEN
University of Michigan